











ANALYTIC HISTORY,

FOR SCHOOLS;

FOUNDED UPON

THE ESQUISSES HISTORIQUES

OF

M. D. LEVI, (Alvarez,)

ADAPTED TO THE STATE OF INSTRUCTION IN THE

UNITED STATES,

AND BROUGHT DOWN TO THE YEAR 1848.

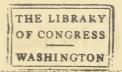
BY JOHN H. HUNTER.

New=Fork:

PUBLISHED BY D. FANSHAW, 575 BROADWAY; Printing Office, corner of Ann and Nassau-sts.

1848.





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RECOMMENDATIONS.

New-York, July 21, 1847.

MR. HUNTER,

DEAR SIR,—The following is a copy of the report upon "An Analytical History" by M. D. Levi, read before the Ward School Teachers' Association, and unanimously adopted by them at a meeting held in the City Hall, July 7, 1847.

Respectfully,

WM. KENNEDY, Recording Secretary.

REPORT.

MR. PRESIDENT.

The Book Committee of this Association have examined with some care a French Work on History, by M. D. Levi, (Alvarez,) and a manuscript translation of the same by Rev. John H. Hunter. This work is universal in its character, and professes to be Sketches of History, as, indeed, every work of this kind must be which is contained within the limits of 390 pages.

This volume embraces a large amount of matter, very pleasantly and clearly arranged. It appears to be free from sectarian prejudices, and aims to give the true historic account of every fact narrated. It is, in the opinion of your committee, a work admirably adapted for use in our schools, generally being short,

comprehensive and interesting.

Those parts of the Translation, by Rev. John H. Hunter, which we have examined and compared, appear to be faithfully executed, and to give clearly and forcibly the sense of the original. If the work be published, as we hope it will be, we doubt not it will be extensively used in our schools, and be found interesting to the general reader, and that a valuable object will be accomplished by the Translator, in thus bringing it before the public. Your Committee offer the following resolution.

Resolved.—That the Historical Sketches by M. D. Levi, (Alvarez.) and translated by Rev. John H. Hunter, is, in the judgment of this Association, a work of much excellence, and

well fitted for use in the recitation room; and that we encourage its introduction into the Schools with which we are connected.

John Walsh, Chairman. J. Blackburn. Edward McIlroy. William Kennedy.

From the Principal of the Seminary for Young Ladies in Bridgeport, Connecticut.

Having been permitted to use the Manuscript of the "Analytical History" in my school last winter, I have been enabled to submit it to the only sure test by which a school book can be judged, that of actual experiment; and I am gratified to have this opportunity of giving my testimony to its excellence.

It comprises, in itself, a complete system of instruction; which if faithfully carried out by the teacher, cannot fail to give any pupil, of moderate abilities, such a knowledge of the principal facts of History as will enable him to deduce those moral lessons for which the study is principally valuable. Even one whose historical knowledge is already considerable, will, by this plan, find it so systematized as to become doubly available. By the frequent repetition of the outline so skilfully drawn up in the commencement, it is indelibly fixed in the memory; and the minor details are gradually associated with this sketch, so as finally to make it a finished whole. I rejoice that Mr. Hunter has made the work of M. D. Levi accessible to such of my pupils as are unacquainted with the French language, and hope that its general introduction into the schools of this country may prove a universal and lasting benefit to our youth.

LYDIA R. WARD.

June 16, 1847.

PREFACE.

Elementary instruction in history is almost a nullity in our country; this is a sad truth to announce. Notwithstanding the zeal of certain writers and teachers who have exerted themselves to improve it, we seek in vain a methodical work on this branch of education, where all mankind still find the rules of conduct.

Certain summaries of ancient and modern history are current in the schools; but they are arranged upon no settled plan: the pupils learn them by heart, recite them with mechanical volubility, and give themselves but little concern about introducing order into the ideas, or connecting the facts which they contain. They confound centuries, events, and men; make Alexander the Great to have lived before Romulus, and Hannibal in the time of Pharamond. In this chaos, in this labyrinth of names, dates and facts, the memory, overwhelmed beneath the undigested mass, is fatigued, and succumbs; from this confusion springs disgust, from disgust, weariness, and from weariness, ignorance.

It is not an useless remark, that upon the talent of the instructor depends the success of a laborious and well-disposed student. When a man teaches, it is necessary that he should know twice: first for himself, and next for his pupil. The art of instruction, in history especially, is more difficult than is commonly supposed: it is not enough to say; learn, repeat; it is necessary that adroit and

pressing questions cause the desired answer to be discovered; it is necessary to find out ingenious means for fixing a particular event in the memory, and to possess, in sufficient extent, the two sciences which serve as the foundation of history: Geography and Chronology. Here are great difficulties, doubtless; they are not to be surmounted but by the force of vigilance and toil; it is only thus, however, that a man may bear, without usurpation, the lofty title of teacher; or conscientiously fulfil the noble and delicate function of instructing his kind. We should always reflect, that upon our talents, upon the clearness and method of our lessons, depends in great measure the future of a child. What a powerful motive for meditating on our duties!

Here, you will say, are grave reflections for so small a work. This work will be of little importance, doubtless, to the eyes of the undiscerning; but it will acquire some value in the view of the friend of children, and of the sensible instructor of youth; for it is towards the improvement of elementary instruction that the philanthropist directs his beneficient regards. In his solicitude he will seek for everything which may open to instruction a new and certain road; it is only when its foundations are solid that the monument defies the injuries of time.

Remarks upon the Method of Teaching History, by M. D. Levi.

The method of M. D. Levi, according to which the following work is arranged, addresses itself to all ages and understandings; it takes the child six years old, and conducts him, by a series of successive developments, onward to the close of his historic studies.

This method is presented in two principal works, the Esquisses Historiques and the Elemens d'Histoire Generale As the present work is mainly derived from the former, or the Historical Sketches, a brief analysis will be here proper of those parts of it which we have adopted.

The few first pages of the work are devoted to information which the pupil should acquire before commencing the study of history; the origin and formation of nations and states, that of governments, the different sorts of government, the object of history, its divisions according to the different points of view under which we regard it, the sciences which serve for its foundation, the eras of nations, the different ways of dividing them, &c.

Next come certain preliminary ideas concerning the primitive times of the world; from the creation to the deluge; from the deluge to the rise of the earliest nations. It will be seen that all these ideas are expressed in the present work with much clearness, and are perfectly accessible to the understanding of children; they are presented in a dozen pages, and form a sort of introduction to the work, which itself comprehends seven divisions.

The first division is occupied with a Scale of all the nations known to history. This scale presents, in their chronological order, the ancient nations, those of the middle age, and those of modern history, with only the indication of the century of their foundation and the name of their founder.

This first division, which the author regards as the trunk of history, should be studied with the greatest care, and repeated at the commencement of every lesson, whatever may be the pupils degree of advancement: it is a true historic alphabet. For this purpose a black-

board may be used on which are traced initial letters designed to recall the names of the nations and of their founders.

The second division gives the geographical situation of all these nations; it should consequently be studied by the pupil with maps before him.

The third division has for its title, The principal vicissitudes of the nations. It presents us again with the same nations in the same chronological order; for, let it be well remarked, the principal merit of this system is that it always connects new facts with those already known. Here we find the great masses of the history of each people marked by the different revolutions which it has undergone.

The fourth division, which the author calls a brief review, is a rapid summary of the facts which the pupils have studied in the three first divisions. It is important then that it be known in the most perfect manner.

The more the pupil has advanced, the more will his understanding have been developed by the comparisons which he has made. Here he sets about securing the knowledge he has acquired; this brief review of general history presents the grand facts which he has seen in the whole of each particular history.

The brief review is followed by a chronology of the principal events of history. Here the pupil may begin to avail himself of the second and larger work of the author,* the Elements of General History, in order to

^{*} This work is now ready for the press, and will soon be published. Meanwhile it is proper to state that the larger work, though an admirable addition to the present, for those who are disposed to pursue the study of History at greater length, is not necessary to the completeness of the

study the developement of the facts which are only indicated in the chronology.

This chronological table is of great importance even to those who do not advance to the study of the larger work, since it is the term of comparison to which the historic facts of each century will be referred; it is expedient therefore to detain the pupil here until he is in sure possession of it.

Connected with the chronological table is a list of great men from the creation of the world to our own day, arranged according to centuries; one celebrated personage gives his name to a century; and in a second column, placed opposite, are inscribed the names of other remarkable personages of the same century.

For example: the great Cyrus gives his name to the VIth century, before J. C.; Solon, Pisistratus, Tarquin the Proud, Confucius, Crœsus and Cambyses, are celebrated men of the same century. Thus the histories of Greece, Rome, China, and Persia, are recalled simultaneously to the memory of the pupil.

This secular list furnishes one of the most useful exercises; you may judge of this by the questions which the author has placed in the sequel. For instance:

In what century did Hannibal live? How many years or centuries elapsed between Hannibal and Louis XIV^{th.}? In what history do you find Hannibal, and on what occasion is he spoken of? Apply to each personage questions

smaller, which is perfect in itself, and, if thoroughly studied, will impart a clearer and more minute acquaintance with the branch of study of which it treats than any other manual now in existence. This is saying much, but not more than the work deserves, as every one who becomes familiar with its contents will admit.

of the same nature, and you will comprehend all the fruit that may be derived from such an exercise.

For this biography of great men, the pupil will begin to multiply his researches; he may and ought to avail himself of all the works which are at his disposal. A small Historical Dictionary will here be of use to him.

Let us stop at this point, and attempt to estimate what amount of acquisition will have been made by the pupils who have reached it.

They will know: 1st. the chronological order, the names of the founders, and the geographical positions of the nations who have occupied the scene of the world from the origin of the earliest people until our own days; 2nd, the principal vicissitudes of those nations; that is to say, the grand divisions of the history of each of them; 3rd, the chronology and the development of the principal events of history; 4th, finally, all the celebrated men who have appeared in each century.

In the fifth division, the nations viewed hitherto as a whole, and only indicated by their birth, their moment of splendor and their fall, are presented with details sufficient to make them more perfectly known.

This developed portion of the work should be read attentively at the recitation; the pupil, prepared by the foregoing exercises, will experience no difficulty in mastering its contents.

The sixth division of the work is a chronological list of all the sovereigns of Europe, down to our own time, arranged by dynastics and families. By means of a synoptical table, which the pupil should make, he can give the names of all the sovereigns who reigned in Europe at a given epoch. For example: Who were the kings

that reigned in Europe when Christopher Columbus discovered America in 1492? The student of this work will answer without hesitancy:—In France, Charles VIII^{th.}; in England, Henry VII^{th.}; in Spain, Ferdinand V^{th.}, &c.

This last labor is one of the most instructive and interesting; the papil should exercise himself gradually in pointing out the reigning sovereigns at a given epoch. He may study at first France, next England; and before passing to another people, he will place these two States in connection, by naming the cotemporary sovereigns of these countries. After having exercised him sufficiently in this way, any date whatever is set before him, and he names, according to his progress, the cotemporary monarchs of France, England, Russia, &c.

The seventh and last division consists of a Summary View, in which the great epochs of History, with the leading events by which they were characterised, are pointed out, and the pupil is enabled, at the close of his studies, to take a comprehensive survey of the progress of his race.

Thus, by the aid of successive exercises, all the great events of history will have entered into the memory of the pupils in an order so well graduated that each new acquisition will be for them no more than the developement of facts already known. All these exercises lend each other a natural assistance; thus any date whatever recalls at an instant the name of the nation whose origin it marks, that of the founder of that nation, its geographical position, the principal revolutions which it has undergone, and the other nations with which its history is connected. Nothing is isolated in the memory of the puipil; every thing is connected, all bound together. Here,

in our opinion, is the true manner of studying history. The method of historic study thus exhibited proceeds by the understanding in order to reach the memory, and it is especially in this particular that it is preferable to the old one, which followed a course exactly the reverse; accordingly, compare two children from ten to twelve years of age, instructed, the one by the ancient method, and the other by that which is here adopted; What do you find? Little or nothing on the one side, and on the other information, varied and extensive for the age of the child; a spirit of analysis, of comparison, and of moral criticism, in which the rational human being already makes his appearance.

The introduction of such a method into historical instruction in our own country will prove, we are persuaded, of the highest advantage. This conviction has induced the compiler of the present work to attempt a task in which, by omitting certain details of the plan, as developed by its learned and useful inventor, not adapted to the state of things in our own land, he might present the instructors and pupils in history, among his countrymen, with a work which may well claim to be the only one in the English language calculated to impart to those who study it, a systematic acquaintance with the important branch of which it treats.

J. H. H.

PRELIMINARY OBSERVATIONS.

From the Creation of the World to the Deluge.

In the beginning God created all the beings of the universe; he endowed man and woman with the greatest perfection of soul and body. He placed them in a delightful abode, which we call the terrestrial paradise (in Asia). But Adam and Eve, by their disobedience, drew upon themselves the wrath of the Eternal, who condemned them to the ills of life and to death itself.

After their fall they had two sons, called Cain and Abel. Cain conceived jealousy against his brother, and slew him; this was the first murder. A third son, named Seth, comforted Adam; he distinguished himself by his justice and piety: his sons, for a time, followed his example.

Meanwhile, in multiplying, men corrupted themselves; they despised the warnings of God; a terrible catastrophe annihilated them, and the whole race of Adam was reduced to the family of Noah the just. The earth was inundated: this is what is called the universal deluge, which took place seventeen centuries after the creation of

What did God do in the beginning?
How did he endow man and woman?
Where did he place them?
How did they conduct themselves there?
What was the consequence?
What is said of Cain and Abel?
What was the character of Seth?
Did his sons imitate his example?
Did mankind become corrupt as they multiplied?
How did they treat the warnings of God?
What calamity befel them?
To what family was the human race reduced?

the world, or thirty-four centuries before the birth of Jesus Christ (1655 of the world, 3308 before J. C.)

From the Deluge to the rise of the primitive Nations.

After remaining many months upon the earth the waters subsided, and the vessel which bore the remains of the first family stood still on mount Ararat. The children of Noah multiplied rapidly. The land where the ark had stopped not being sufficient for their subsistance, they formed the project of separating themselves by great families.

Before consummating that separation, they wished to leave a monument of their power in order to preserve themselves from a second deluge, by building a prodigious tower, since called the tower of Babel. God, irritated at their pride, put a stop to its construction by the miracle of the confusion of tongues.

Separation only became the more necessary; three colonies were formed :-

1st. That of the descendants of Ham directed its course towards the south-west; some of them stopped in the country since called Palestine, to which the proscribed family of Canaan gave the name of its chief; the others, under-the conduct of Mesraim, or Menes, established themselves in Africa, and founded the kingdom of Egypt;

When did the deluge take place? How did the catastrophe terminate?

Where was the ark arrested?

Did the family of Noah multiply rapidly after the deluge?

What project did they form?

Before consummating their separation what monument of their power did they wish to leave behind them?

How did the Almighty frustrate their design?

Was the necessity for their separation increased or diminished by this event?

How many colonies were formed?

Whither did the descendants of Ham direct their course?

2nd. That of the descendants of Shem retained the plain of Sennaar, and extended themselves towards the east and the west; Arphaxad, the eldest of the sons of Shem, founded the kingdom of Chaldea, and later the privileged kingdom of God, under Abraham, the son of Terah; Elam, the second son, founded the kingdom of the Elamites, or Persia; Asshur, the third son, laid the foundations of the kingdom of the Assyrians;—

3rd. That of the descendants of Japheth traversed a portion of western and northern Asia, and passed over into

Europe.

All these colonics extended themselves from generation to generation in the countries in which they were at first established, and the whole earth became the dwelling-place of mankind.

Formation of Nations.

Man is born to live in society: the multiplicity of his wants, the long feebleness of his infancy, the tardy developement of his intelligence, all render him social.

In primitive times each family lived united; the father was its natural head; his councils were followed, his laws obeyed. But families multiplied, they became too numerous to live in the same place, they separated; there were many chiefs, and consequently many councils, many laws.

By little and little the necessity for communicating their

What are some of the proofs that man is born to live in

society?

What was the condition of each family in primitive times? What took place when families multiplied?

Where did the descendants of Shem continue to reside?

In what part of the world did the descendants of Japheth settle?—Did these colonies extend themselves?

Note.—The dispersion of the nations should be followed out upon a large map.

ideas to each other, and of mutually assisting each other, caused the reunion of a large number of those families which had been scattered: this is probably the origin of the formation of nations and states.

From the time of this reunion, the necessity of having only a single will inspired the idea of placing in the hands of several men, or of a single man, the fate, the fortune, the existence of that concourse of individuals: this is the origin of government, or of the principles by which a people is governed.

From these principles of government are derived the laws, which are the expression of the relations that are

necessarily established in society.

Laws.

Laws apply to God in his relations with the universe, as Creator and Preserver; to the material world, whose movements have invariable laws, without which they cannot subsist; to beasts, which have only natural laws, because they are united to the material world by none other than physical wants; to man who, as a physical being, is, in common with other bodies, governed by invariable laws, and who, as an intelligent being, is governed by those of religion and morality, and by political law.

Laws in general may be divided into two kinds; natu-

ral and positive.

The former comprehend: 1st. the law of peace, which appears to take its source in the first sentiment of man, that of his weakness, and consequently that of fear; 2nd.

What is the origin of the formation of nations and states? What is the origin of government? Whence are laws derived?—What is law? To what beings do laws apply? How may laws in general be divided? Into what classes may natural laws be divided? Whence does the law of peace take its source?

the law of preservation, the origin of which is the second sentiment of man, that of his wants; 3rd. the law of approximation, which manifests itself by the pleasure which an animal experiences at the sight of another of its species; 4th. the law of sociality, which takes its birth in the desire which every one experiences to communicate the knowledge he has acquired.

The positive laws comprise: 1st the law of nations, which is the connection of different nations with each other; the laws which form it are derived from two principles, viz: that the different nations should do each other, in peace, the most good, and in war, the least evil possible, without hurting their own interests, and that war have for its object preservation; 2nd political law, which embraces the relations of governors with the governed; 3rd civil law, which comprehends the relations that all the citizens of the same state have among themselves. The two kinds of laws last mentioned vary according to the nations and governments for which they were made.

We may refer to positive laws, the laws of religion, which have for their object to impress a sanction in some sort divine upon other positive laws, as well as upon the laws of nature. If admitted at all, it is necessary that they be suited to the character of each particular people, and conformed to the institutions as well as to the wants of each climate; they comprise the common law,

What is the origin of the law of preservation? How does the law of approximation manifest itself? Whence does the law of sociality take its birth? What do the positive laws comprise? What is the right of nations? Whence are the laws from which it is derived? What does political law embrace? What relations does the civil law comprehend? How do the two last mentioned kinds of laws vary?

To which of the two great classes may the laws of religion be referred?—What is their object?

To what should they be adapted? What subdivisions do they comprise?

which is occupied with the relations of the various orders of ecclesiastical ministers, with regard to each other, and the theological or dogmatical which, regulate public worship, and determine the nature and limits of the creed. In our own country, the civil legislature is not competent to the enactment of such laws.

Governments.

Government is the just application of laws made and promulgated in the interest of society for its preservation

and prosperity.

In the origin of societies, the form of government was either patriarchal or theocratic: patriarchal when the heads of families were masters or sovereigns; theocratic, when the ministers of religion, the priests, had the sovereign power, and reigned at once over temporal and spiritual affairs. At the present day governments may be divided into two kinds, the republic and the monarchy.

Republican Governments.

The nature of this government is that the people in a body, or only a part of the people, has the sovereign power.

It is divided into two varieties:

The democracy, or republic properly so called, when the whole people has the sovereign power;

With what is the canon law occupied?

What do theological or dogmatic laws regulate?

Are such laws within the scope of civil legislation in our own country ?

What is government?

What forms of government prevailed in the origin of society! What was the patriarchal form? - What the theocratic?

Into how many kinds may governments, at the present day,

What is the nature of republican government?

Into how many varities is it divided?

What is democracy?

The aristocracy, when the power is in the hands of a part of the people, the grandees, the lords. Aristocracy is divided into several kinds. If the aristocracy possesses a part of the government, and the whole of the territory, (as formerly in Poland, England and France,) it is feudalism, or the hierarchy of powers among the vassals or seigneurs.

If it possesses a part of the territory and the whole of the government, (as at Carthage, Venice, and in certain Swiss countries,) this is oligarchy.

If it possesses only a part of the government and of the territory, (as in England and Sweden,) this is the peerage or the sexate.

If, without political power, it possesses either priviledged lands or part of the judiciary power, it is the nobility.

If it is only titular, as it does not form a body, and is in the State neither an order nor a power, it has no collective name; it is then beyond the reach of political language and classification.

Monarchy.

Monarchy is the government of a single man; it is elective if the monarch be chosen indifferently in many families; it is hereditary if he be taken of right in the same family; it is absolute, if the king be independent of the laws; it is autocratic if that independence is unlimited.

The monarchy is limited, if a charter or a constitution binds the king to the people, and the people to the king.

In this latter form, the people is represented by legislative assemblies or chambers. These chambers are di-

What is aristocracy!

Can you describe the several kinds of aristocracy?
What is monarchy?—When is it called elective? hereditary? absolute? autocratic? limited?

In a limited monarchy how are the people represented? How are the legislative assemblies divided?

vided into two parts: the upper chamber (or the peers, as in France) composed of members hereditary or nominated for life.

The chamber of commons (or of deputies, as in France) composed of men chosen by a certain number of their fellow-countrymen, called electors.

Anarchy is confusion, disorder in a state, where no person has authority enough to command and to make the laws respected.

Distinction of Nations.

Before proceeding to a narrative of the events which have taken place we should distinguish the nations from each other in various respects, according: 1^{st.} to their color; 2^{nd.} the country which they inhabit; 3^{rd.} their origin; 4^{th.} their geographical situation; 5^{th.} their intelligence; 6^{th.} their occupations; 7^{th.} their religion.

Color and physical character.

The human race is divided into two distinct parts, and these are afterwards divided into various races, principal stocks or families.

The first part is distinguished in a moral point of view by a progressive intelligence, or by a state of civilization more or less advanced. It uses written laws, and may be divided, physically, into three races; the white; it includes Europeans in general, the western Asiatics, and the nations of Barbary: the tawny or olive colored: it includes the eastern Asiatics, in general, and the polar na-

Of what is the upper chamber composed? Who compose the chamber of commons?

What is anarchy?

How are the nations distinguished from each other? Into how many distinct species is the human race divided? How is the first species distinguished in a moral point of view? How in a physical? tions: and the copper-colored: the indigenous Americans.

The second part is distinguished, morally, by a limited understanding, and a civilization ever imperfect: it is divided into three races; the deep-brown, the Malays and the inhabitants of Notasia and those of Polynesia: the black; the Ethiopians and the Caffres: and the black-ish; the Hottentots and the inhabitants of Australia. We remark, among the negroes, the Albinos, or Africans of a dingy white.

Country.

The nations are Asiatic, European, African, American, Malay; they are subdivided into Persians, French, &c. according to the States of Asia, Europe, &c. which they inhabit.

Origin.

The nations are autocthones, indigenes, or aborigines, that is to say, primitive inhabitants; foreigners, colonists, that is to say, they have passed from one country into another, whether in the design of sojourning there, or in the design of inhabiting it and cultivating the land; creoles, that is to say, born in the East or West Indies, of a father or mother originally from another country.

Metis, that is persons whose father is European and mother Indian, or whose father is Indian and mother European. We speak of a metisse.

Mulatto, whose father is white and mother a negress, or whose father is a negro and mother white. We speak of a mulatress.

How is the second species morally distinguished? Into how many races is it divided? Among the negroes what variety is remarkable? How are the nations divided and subdivided as to country? How are they divided as to origin? Whatare aborigines? Colonists? Creoles? Metis? Mulattoes?

Geographical situation.

The insular nations inhabit islands; mountainers, the mountains; ripuarians are those who dwell along a river; nomades, those who change their residence to seek for new pasture; and maritime, those who are situated upon the seaboard.

Intelligence.

The nations are savages, if they are not acquainted with the manner of fixing their thoughts by signs; barbarous or semi-civilized, if they have made only slow progress in civilization, if their laws are irregular, and cruel; civilized, if they have a fixed system of legislation, polity and war: they are then acquainted with the sciences, the fine arts, and the belles-lettres. But this classification may present great modifications, for it is frequently difficult to determine in a precise manner the point which separates barbarism from civilization.

The cretins form a class by themselves: they are deaf, dumb, and imbecile beings; they have goitres or swollen glands which hang from their throats. They are found at the foot of mountains, the Alps, the Andes, &c.

Occupations.

The nations are hunters, fishers, shepherds, cultivators, traders, navigators, warriors, &c.

Religion.

All nations admit the existence of a Being who created

How are the nations divided as to geographical situation?

How are they divided as to intelligence? Why may their classification in this respect present great

modifications?

What are the cretins?—Where are they found?
How are the nations divided as to occupation?

How as to religion?

the universe, but all do not worship him in the same manner, which gives rise to many religions. The exterior acts of which each is composed is called worship. It may be divided into two classes: Polytheism, or the worship of many gods, and Monotheism, or the worship of one god.

Polytheism, or the worship of many gods; we notice here fetichism, or the adoration of animate or inanimate earthly things; this is the religion of savages;

Sabeism, or the worship of the stars: this is the religion of certain isolated tribes:

Brahmism, or the transformation of the Divinity under different forms of men or animals: this is the religion of the Hindoos;

Dualism, or the religion of the two principals: Oromasdes, or the beneficout being, and Ahrimanes, or the malignant being. Zoroaster created this system among the Persians.

Monotheism admits only one God. It rejects the worship of physical objects, and has given to mankind an idea of the divinity, grander and more sublime than all the others. It is composed of *Judaism*, *Christianity* and *Mahometism*.

Judaism is the principal trunk of the other two; it is divided into three sects:

1st. That of the Rabbinists, who attribute authority to the Talmud or the oral laws of Moses;

2nd. That of the Karaites, or rabbins attached to the

What is worship!

Into how many classes may it be divided !

What is Polytheism?-What are it varieties?

What is Fetichism? Sabeism? Brahmism? Dualism? What does Monotheism admit?—What does it reject?

What has it given to mankind? Of what parties is it composed?

What is Judaism?—Into how many sects is it divided? What are the Rabbinists?—What the Karaites?

latter, who acknowledge only the Pentateuch or the five books of Moses;

3rd. That of the Samaritans, which exists at Naplous,

(Sichem,) in Asia.

Christianity, or the religion of Jesus Christ. It is extended through the whole of Europe, and in many countries of Asia, Africa and America; it is composed of three principal branches:

1st. The Catholic, or Roman religion, or that of the Latin Occidental Church, of which the pope is the head. It is professed in Austria, Italy, France, Spain, Portugal, Prussia, Poland, and in the eastern and western colonies of those States.

2nd. Protestantism, which does not recognise the au-

thority of the pope; it is divided

Into Lutheranism, professed in Denmark, Sweden, Norway, Transylvania, and a part of Poland; also in some parts of the United States.

Calvinism, spread through England, Holland, Switzer-land and Geneva; also in a large part of North America.

The Anglican Church, in Great Britain and in many parts of the United States.

Protestantism includes also different minor sects: the quakers, who originated in England; the socinians, in Transylvania, &c.

3rd. The Greek Church, or melchites, in Greece, in Russia, in Asia, and Africa, under the patriarchs of Constantinople, Antioch, Jerusalem and Alexandria. This sect com-

What the Samaritans?—What is Christianity? Through what countries is it extended? Of how many principal branches is it composed? What is Roman Catholicism? In what countries is it professed? What is Protestantism?—How is it divided? Where is Lutheranism professed?—Calvinism? The Anglican Church? What are some of the minor sects of Protestantism? Where is the Greek church found?

prises also, the Muscovites or Russians, the Georgians and Mingrelians.

Mahometism, or Islamism. It is divided into two sects:

1st. The sect of Omar, followed by the Turks, a part of the Tartars, and by the Arabs, the Egyptians, and many nations of northern Africa. Those who belong to this sect are called Sunnites, because they admit the commentary called Sunna; they recognise the califfs as the legitimate successors of Omar.

2nd. The sect of Ali, or the schiites, that is separatists. It is adopted by the Persians, the Moguls, the nations of India who have received mahometism, as the inhabitants of the Maldive Islands, &c.

The Koran is the sacred book of the mahometans. Its distinguishing dogma is fatalism; it says, in substance: God had willed it, accordingly what has taken place was inevitable.

The divisions of History.

The origin of nations, their increase and decay, their good or evil actions, their successes and reverses, in fine, their revolutions, are preserved in a *Memorial* called *History*. *History* is then the picture of the events which have taken place upon the globe.

These events are *religious*, if they belong to religion; Civil or political, if they belong to the state or to government;

Into how many sects is Mahometism divided? By what nations is the sect of Omar followed?

Why are the Sunnites so called?

Whom do they recognise as the legitimate successor of Omar?

What does schiite mean?

By whom is the sect of Ali adopted?

What is the sacred book of the Mahometans?

What is its distinguishing dogma?—What is History? Of how many kinds may the events recorded in history be? Literary, if they recall the origin and progress of the arts and sciences:

Natural, if they have reference to terrestrial or celestial

phenomena;

Hence the denominations of holy, sacred, religious, or ecclesiastical history; of civil and political history; of literary history, and of natural history.

With reference to its extent and objects, history is di-

vided into particular, and general or universal.

Particular history treats only of one people, one province, one city or one illustrious personage.

Universal history retraces the events of all nations.

General history embraces at a single glance the revolutions of a great state or of many nations, bound together among themselves by leading interests.

With reference to time, history is distinguished into ancient history, the history of the middle-age, and modern

history.

The history of nations is also divided into many great epochs, or by centuries, that is to say a space of an hun-

dred years.

These centuries are counted be diminishing until the birth of Jesus Christ, and by increasing after that event, which serves accordingly for a starting-point; we say, therefore: This nation was founded, this event took place so many centuries before or after Jesus Christ.

Among the sciences which serve as a foundation to history, geography and chronology hold the first rank; and

How is history divided with reference to its extent and obect?—Of what does particular history treat?

What does general history embrace?

How is history distinguished with reference to time?

How are the centuries of history counted?

What is the most important sciences which serve as a foundation to history?

In the divisions of chronology what kind of knowledge is in-

dispensible?

in the divisions of the latter, the knowledge of different eras is indispensible.

All nations have not adopted the same divisions of time. The Hebrews reckon by the sabbatic year, a space of

seven years.

The Greeks, by the olympiad, a space of four years.

The Romans, by lustrums, a space of five years.

Eras are fixed points from which each people begin to count their years: there is, then, the era of the Greeks, the Romans, the Syrians, the Christians, the Arabs.

The relation of facts which happened at the same time is called sunchronism.

To make an anachronism, is to commit faults against

chronology.

In order that the events may be classed methodically in our memories, and that we may assign to each nation the century of its foundation, we have prepared a list which presents the succession of nations, from the establishment of the first states until our own days (1847). This list bears the name of scale or ladder, by allusion to the instrument which, by means of steps, enables us to reach any point whatever.

We shall divide the nations into three parts: the ancient, the intermediary or of the middle-age, and modern

nations.

Have all nations adopted the same divisions of time?
How did the Hebrews reckon time?—The Greeks?—The
Romans?—What are eras?

What are the leading eras of which mention is made in his-

tory?—What is synchronism?

What is anachronism?

FIRST PART.

SCALE OF NATIONS.

Ancient History.

The ancient nations whose history is little known, are:

1st In Asia, the *Hindoos*, the *Chinese*, the *Japanese*, the *Scythians*; in Africa, the *Ethiopians*; in Europe, the *Celts* and *Basques*.

The nations whose history is known, are:

2nd. In the XXV^{th.} century (2467) before J. C. the Egyptians, whose founder was Menes; in Africa.

3rd. In the XXIIIrd. century (2297) the Hebrews, first

patriarch, Abraham; in Asia.

4th. In the XXth century (1993) the Assyrians; founder, Belus, in Asia.

[On the ruins of the Assyrian empire rose, in the VIIIth century the Medes (759) founder, Arbaces; the Babylonians (757), founder, Belesis; the Ninivites (759), founder, Phul; in Asia.]

-5th In the XVIIth century (1640) the Phenicians, founder, Agenor; in Asia.

6th. In the XVIth. century (1582) the Greeks, founder, Cecrops; in Europe.

[The principal nations of Greece were: the Athenians (1582), founder, Cecrops; the Thebans (1549), founder, Cadmus; the Spartans (1516), founder, Lelex; the Corinthians (1328), founder, Sisyphus; the Mycenians (1348), founder, Perseus.]

7th. In the XVIth. century (1506) the Trojans, founders, Teucer and Dardanus; in Asia.

8th. In the IXth. century (860) the Carthaginians (a

Phenician colony) foundress, Dido; in Africa.

9th. In the VIIIth. century (753) the Romans, founder, Romulus; in Europe.

10th. In the VIth. century (536) the Persians, founder,

Cyrus; in Asia.

11th. In the IVth. century (360, 336) the Macedonians, founders, Philip and Alexander; in Europe.

[At the death of Alexander (324) the Macedonian empire was divided into four kingdoms, among the generals of the conqueror; Macedonia fell to Cassander, Thrace to Lysimachus, Syria to Seleucus, Egypt to Ptolemy, son of Lagus.]

12th. In the IIIrd. century (250) the Parthians, founder, Arsaces; in Asia.

[Birth of Jesus Christ, in the year of the world 4963, Lth. century.]

13th IIIrd. century (228) after J. C. the new Persians, founder, Artaxerxes; in Asia.

14th. In the IVth. century (394) the Eastern Empire,

first emperor, Arcadius; in Europe and Asia.

[In 476 took place the fall of the Roman Empire of the West, caused by the invasion of the barbarous nations of Germany.]

Principal Barbarous Nations,

Which invaded the Roman Empire in the Vth. century after Jesus Christ.

15th. In the Vth. century (405) the Burgundians; chief, Gondicaire; in Europe.

16th. (In 409) the Suevi; chief, Hermanric; Europe. 17th. (In 409) the Vandals; chief, Genseric; Europe.

18th (In 409) the Alani; chief, Gonderic; Asia.

19th. (In 418) the Franks; chief, Pharamond; Europe. 20th. (In 427) the Angles and Saxons; chiefs, Hengist and Horsa; in Europe.

21st. (In 455) the Huns; chief, Attila; in Asia.

22nd (In 476) the Heruli; chief, Odoacer; Europe.

23rd. Goths (in 493) the Ostrogoths; chief, Theodoric; (in 595) the Visigoths; chiefs, Alaric and Hermanric; in Europe.

24th. (In 568) the Lombards; chief, Alboin; in Europe.

Secondary Barbarous Nations.

25th. In the Vth. century the Avars, who came from Asia.

26th. The Gepidi, from the Baltic.

27th. The Bulgarians, from Scythia.

28th. The Venedes, from the Baltic.

29th. The Slaves, from the Baltic.

30th In the IXth century the Hungarians, from the Volga.

31et. In the Xth. century the Allemani, from the Rhine.

32nd. The Danes, from Jutland.

33rd. The Normans, from Jutland.

34th In the XVth century the Turks, who came from Asia.

[Ancient History, commencing at the creation of the World, ends at the fall of the Roman Empire of the West, in 476, caused by the invasion of barbarous nations: it had lasted more than 54 centuries (4963 to 476—5439.)]

Nations of the Middle Age.

The nations of the middle-age are:

35th In the Vth. century (481) the French; founder, Clovis; in Europe.

36th. In the VIth. century (568) the Lombards; founder Alboin; in Europe.

37th In the VIth century (572) the Spanish; founder, Leovigild; in Europe.

38th. In the VIIth. century (622) the Arabs; lawgiver,

Mahomet; in Asia.

39th. In the VIIIth century (714) the Moors; principal chief, Abdheraman; in Africa.

40th. In the 1Xth. century (813) the Swedes; principal founder, Biorne; in Europe.

41st. In the IXth. century (827) the English; first king, Egbert; in Europe.

42nd. In the IXth. century (842) the Poles; founder, Piast; in Europe.

43rd In the IXth century (862) the Russians; founder, Rurick; in Europe.

44th. In the Xth. century (912) the Germans; first king,

Conrad Ist; in Europe.

45th. In the Xth. century (930) the Dancs; principal founder, Harald VIIth.; in Europe.

46th. In the Xth. century (1000) the Hungarians; founder, Stephen I.; in Europe.

47 h. In the XIIth. century (1130) the Neapolitans and Sicilians; first king, Roger Had; in Europe.

48th. In the XIIth. century (1139) the *Portuguese*; first king, *Alphonso Henriquez*; in Europe.

49th. In the XIIth. century (1198) the Bohemians;

founder, Ottocar Ist.; in Europe.

50th In the XIIIth century (1300) the Asiatic Turks;

founder, Osman Ist; in Europe.

51st In the XIVth century (1308) the Swiss; (republic) liberators, Melchtal, Stauffacher, Walter Furst and William Tell; in Europe.

52nd. In the XVth. century (1453) the European Turks;

founder, Mahomet IInd; in Europe.

[The History of the middle-age commences at the Vib. century, on the fall of the Roman Empire of the West,

and terminates in the middle of the XVth, at the establishment of the Turks in Europe; it lasted therefore nearly ten centuries (from 476 to 1453=977).]

Modern Nations.

The nations of modern history are:

53rd. In the XVth. century (1453) the European Turks, Mahomet 11nd.

54th In the XVth century (1492) the Americans, discovered by Christopher Columbus.

[The principal nations are: the Mexicans, in the XVIth. century (1518) discovered by Cortez; the Peruvians, in the XVIth. century (1525) by Pizarro; the Brazilians, in the XVIth. century (1500) by Alvarez Cabral; the Anglo-Americans (United States) in the XVIIIth. century (1782) made independent of England under Washington.]

55th. In the XVIth. century (1581) the Hollanders and Belgians; stadt-holder William Ist. of Orange.

56th. In the XVIIIth. century (1701) the Prussians, first

king, Frederic of Hohenzollern.

57th. In the XVIIIth. century (1718) the Sardinians, first king, Victor Amedeus.

58th. In the XIXth. century (1805) the Bavarians, first

king, Maximilian Joseph.

59th In the XIXth century (1805) the Wurtemburgers, first king, Frederic.

60th. In the XIXth. century (1805) the Saxons, first

king, Frederic Augustus.

61st. In the XIXth. century (1830) the New Greeks, chief, Capo d' Istria.

62^{nd.} In the XIX^{th.} century (1830) the Hollanders, William Ist. of Orange.

63rd. In the XIXth century (1830) the Belgians, Leopold of Saxe Cobourg.

64th. In the XIXth. century (1833) the Modern Greeks, first king, Otho of Bavaria.

[Modern History, commencing at the middle of the XVth. century, (1453) already reckons (in 1847) 394 years, that is to say, nearly four centuries.]

EXERCISES ON THE FIRST PART.

TO WRITE :

The historical table of nations, in four columns; 1st. epoch of the foundation; 2nd dates presumed or certain; 3rd names of the nations; 4th names of the founders.

MODEL OF QUESTIONS ON THIS PART.

- 1. What are the nations concerning which we have no certain knowledge?
- 2. How many centuries separate the foundation of Rome from that of Carthage?
 - 3. What nations preceded the Romans? The Greeks?
 - 4. Who is the founder of such a people?
- 5. What are the nations of ancient history, those of the history of the middle age, and those of modern history?
- 6. What are the geographical places spoken of in this part?
- 7. How is general history divided?
- 8. How long did ancient history last? That of the middle age? Modern history?
- 9. At what great event does ancient history end? The history of the middle age?

2

10. What do 1582, 860, 753, 536, &c. recall?

[All the questions which are put to the pupil should be written down at once by him on a sheet devoted to that purpose, in order that he may afterward address them to himself.]

OBSERVATION.

This first part should be arranged on a black-board in a synoptical table, but only with the initial letters; the pupil should name with rapidity all the nations included in it. Whatever may be the degree of his instruction, he should always commence his lessons in history by this important exercise, just as the most able musician commences his pieces by a gamut.

SECOND PART.

SITUATION OF THE NATIONS.

Geographical Part.

The Nations whose origin and history are almost unknown, are:

In Asia, the *Indians* at the south, the *Chinese* at the west, the *Japanese* north-east of the Chinese; the *Scythians* at the north. In Africa, the *Ethiopians* south of Egypt. They occupied what at the present day we call Nubia and Abyssinia. In Europe, the *Basques*, near the Pyrenees; the *Celts*, who, leaving the northern countries of Europe and Asia, spread themselves through the whole of Europe.

The Nations whose history is better known, are:

The Egyptians in Africa, at the north-east. The principal cities were: Memphis, Thebes with the hundred gates, Tanis and Alexandria. The Assyrians properly so called, east of the Tigris, in Asia: Nineva and Arbela. They formed: the Medes in Asia, south of the Caspian sea, and east of the Assyrians: Echatana, Rages. The Babylonians in Asia, south of the Assyrians and southwest of the Medes, between the Tigris and the Euphrates: Babylon. The Ninevites in Asia, north of the Babylonians and east of the Tigris: Nineveh. The Hebrews, in the south-west of Asia, north of Arabia and south of Phenicia: Jerusalem, Joppa, Gaza, Bethlehem, Jericho. The Phenicians in Asia, north of the Hebrews: Berytus, Sy-

don, Tyre. The Greeks in Europe, east of the Adriatic gulf and the Ionian sea, and west of the Archipelago. The principal nations of Greece were: The Athenians in Europe, in Greece proper, the province of Attica, north-east of Peloponessus: Athens, Elcusis, Marathon. The Thebans in Europe, in Greece proper, in Bæotia, north-west of the Athenians: Thebes, Leuctra, Aulis. The Corinthians, in Europe, in the Peloponessus, to the north-east: Corinth. The Spartans in Europe, in the Peloponessus, to the south, in Laconia: Sparta. The Mycenians in Europe, in the Peloponessus, south of the Corinthians, a province of Argolis: Mycenæ, Nauplia, Epidaurus. The Trojans in Asia Minor, to the north-west, province of the Troade: Troy, Lampsacus, Dardanus. The Carthaginians in the north of Africa, opposite Sicily: Carthage, Utica, Zama. The Romans in Europe, at the centre of Italy; at first restricted to the single city of Rome, they became in the sequel masters of the whole known world: Rome, Alba, Tusculum. The Persians in Asia, at the south, east of the Persian gulf: Suza, Persepolis. The Macedonians in Europe, at the north-east of Greece; they became masters of all known Asia and of Egypt: Thessalonica, Potidaa, Pella. The Syrians in Asia. They were situated north of Arabia, Palestine and Phenicia, and south-east of Asia Minor: Antioch, Laodicea, Heliopolis and Damascus. The Parthians properly so called, in Asia, south-east of the Caspian sea, near Media and Hyrcania. Their capital was Hecatompylos, or the city of a hundred gates.

The empire of the East extended from Illyria (Europe) to the Euphrates (Asia), and from the North of Thrace

(Europe) to Lybia (Africa).

The principal barbarous Nations who invaded the Roman Empire, were:

The Burgundians in Europe, north of Germany, (Allemague,) between the Viadrus (Oder) and the Vistula. The Suevi in Europe, to the north of Germany, near the mouth of the Viadrus (Oder). The Vandals in Europe, to the north of Germany, near the shores of Sinus Codranus (the Baltic sea), from the Cimbrian Chersonesus (Jutland) to the Oder. The Alani, originally from Asia, in the environs of the Caucasus, between Pontus-Euxinus (the Black sea) and the Caspian sea. The Franks, a combination of German nations who dwelt in the north-west of Germany, between the Rhine and the Weser. The Angles and the Saxons, north of Germany, at the entrance of the Cimbrian Chersonesus (Jutland). The Huns in Asia, north of Scythia (Siberia), on the frontier of northern China. The Heruli in Germany, between the Elbe and the Oder, south of the Suevi and Burgundians. The Goths, the Visigoths, and the Ostrogoths in Europe, at the north; south of Scandinavia. The Lombards in Germany, between the Elbe (Albis) and the Vistula.

The Secondary barbarous Nations, are:

The Germans. They inhabit the centre of Europe. At the present day they are confounded with the Allemanni; under this name are comprised all the nations which dwelt towards the sources of the Danube, in Germany. The Arars, a Seythian people, north of Asia. The Gepidæ, on the shores of the Baltic sea, in the southern part of Sweden. The Venedes, in European Sarmatia (Russia), on the shores of the Baltic sea, from the Vistula to the gulf of Riga. The Bulgarians in Asia, in the southern part of Scythia. The Slavonians in European Sarmatia, on the shores of the Baltic sea, south of the Venedes. The Danes and Normans in Europe, in Jut-

land and upon the coasts of Norway. The Hungarians at first upon the banks of the Volga, in European Sarmatia; next they established themselves in the part of Pannonia which, afterwards, took the name of Hungary. The Turks. They had resided in the centre of Asia, at the foot of mount Imaus; next they invaded Asia Minor, and finally possessed themselves of the part of Europe to which they gave the name of Turkey.

The historic Nations of the middle-age, are:

The French at the west of Europe. They have at the north, England, at the south, Spain and the Mediterranean, at the east the States of Sardinia, Switzerland, Germany and Belgium, and at the west, the Atlantic Ocean; Paris, Lyons, Bordeaux, Marseilles, Rouen. The Lombards, in Europe, in the north of Italy: Pavia, Milan. The Spanish, in the south-west of Europe. They are bounded on the north by France, on the south by Africa, from which they are separated by the strait of Gibraltar, on the east by the Mediterranean, and on the west by Portugal and the Atlantic ocean: Madrid, Cordova. Serille. The Arabians, in the south-west of Asia, between the Persian gulf, the Red sea, and Palestine, and in the sequel, in all known Asia and the north of Africa: Sana, Mecca, Medina. The Moors, in the north of Africa. They established themselves in Europe, in the south of Spain. The Swedes, in the north of Europe, between Norway, Denmark and the Baltic sea: Stockholm, Upsal, Gottenburgh. The English, in Europe, in the northwest, between the Channel, which separates them from France, the North sea, which separates them from the Low Countries, Germany, Denmark and Norway, and the Atlantic ocean: London, York, Newcastle, Liverpool, Manchester. The Scotch, in Europe, at the north-west, north of the English: Edinburgh, Perth, Glasgow. The Irish, west of the English: Dublin, Cork, Londonderry.

The Russians: They occupy the east of Europe, the north of Asia, and the north-west of America: Saint Petersburgh, Moscow, Archangel. The Poles, at the centre of Europe, west of Russia, north of the empire of Austria, and west of Prussia: Warsaw Sandomir, Cracow. The Danes, in the north of Europe: They have for boundaries, on the north Sweden, on the south Germany, on the east the Baltic sea, and on the west the North sea: Copenhagen, Altona, Odensee. The Hungarians, in the centre of Europe, north of Turkey, east of the Austrian Dominions: Presburg, Hermanstadt. The Germans, the whole centre of Europe comprised between the Baltic sea, Denmark, the North sea, the Low Countries, France, Switzerland, Italy, Turkey and Russia: Vienna, Lintz, Baden. The Bohemians, at the centre of Germany: Prague. The Poruguese, in the south-west of Europe; they have on the north and east Spain, and on the west and south the Atlantic ocean: Lisbon, Setural, Coimbra. The Neapolitans and Sicilians, in the south of Europe, at the southern extremity of Italy and in the island of Sicily: Naples, Capua, Palermo, Syracuse. The Swiss, in the centre of Europe; they are shut up between Germany, France, the Sardinian States and the empire of Austria: Basle, Lucerne, Geneva.

The Nations of modern history, are:

The Turks. They occupy the south-east part of Europe, between the Black sea, Russia, the empire of Austria, the Adriatic sea, the Mediterranean sea, and the Archipelago: in Asia, the south-west part, which has for boundaries; at the north, the Black sea, the Caucasus and the Caspian sea, on the west, the Archipelago, on the south, the Mediterranean and Arabia, on the east, Persia. In Africa, they possessed Egypt, &c.: Constantinople, Salonica, Smyrna, Prusa, Jerusalem, Cairo, Alexandria. The Americans, whose principal nations

are: the Mexicans, in the south-west of North America, west of the gulf of Mexico: Mexico, Oaxaca, San Luis. The Peruvians, in South America, at the west: La Plata, La Paz. The Brazilians, in South America, at the east: Rio Janeiro, Saint Augustin, Pernambuco. The United States, in the centre of North America: Washington, Philadelphia, New-York. . The Hollanders and the Belgians in Europe, north-east of France and north-west of Germany: The Hague, Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Brussels. The Prussians, in Europe, north of Germany and west of Russia: Berlin, Dantzick, Kanigsberg. The Bavarians, in Europe, in Germany, west of the Austrian empire, north-east of Switzerland: Munich, Augsburg, Ratisbon. The Wurtemburgers, in Germany, west of Bavaria and north of Switzerland: Stuttgard, Ulm. The Saxons, in Germany, north of the Austrian empire, and north-east of Bavaria: Dresden. The New Greeks, south of Turkey, in Europe: Athens, Corinth, Tripolitza.

OBSERVATIONS AND EXERCISES UPON THE SECOND PART.

This part is wholly geographical. The pupil cannot be too much familiarized with the situation of the nations; it is an exercise which needs to be frequently repeated.

MODEL OF QUESTIONS ON THIS PART.

- 1. Where is such a people found, and what are the principal cities of the country which it inhabited or inhabits?
- 2. To what country do or did such and such cities belong?
 - 3. What nation was or is found in such a situation?

THIRD PART.

PRINCIPAL VICISSITUDES OF THE NATIONS.

Ancient History.

Nations whose history is almost unknown.

IN ASIA.

The Indians or Hindoos are probably the most ancient nations of the world, and the first founders of other nations; their geograhical position, the historical documents which they present, and the sacred language of the Bramins, their priests, are the three reasons given by the learned, which attest their high antiquity; still their history is almost unknown. It has been said that Bacchus, a Greek hero of the XIV^{th.} century before J. C. conquered the Indias; that Semiramis, queen of Assyria, in the XX^{th.} century, subdued a part of them; that the Persians showed themselves there as conquerors; but what is more certain, is the expedition of Alexander the Great into that country. This conqueror vanquished Porus, one of its bravest kings; still, he did not push his conquests far.

The Indians were little known to the Romans of the

Which are the most ancient nations in the world? What are the proofs which attest their antiquity?

Who is said to have conquered them in the XIVth. century before Christ?

Who in the XXth. ?—Who after Semiramis?

What is known of the expedition of Alexander into that country?

Were they much known to the Romans in the middle-age?

middle age; in modern history, we see them successively subdued by many nations, until the death of Tippoo Saib, king of Mysore, (XVIIIth. century,) killed in a combat against the English, who are at the present day the rulers of India.

The Chinese are little known; notwithstanding their high pretensions, they have remained isolated, and have little communication with other nations. Three personages are especially celebrated among them: Foli, whom they regard as their founder, (XXXth. century before J. C.); Yao, their lawgiver and the model of their kings, (XVIIth century), and Confucius, a philosopher of the VIth. century before J. C., whose memory they venerate. The Chinese were subdued in the XIIIth. century before J. C. by the Mongolian Tartars, who have seated themselves upon their throne and adopted their laws and customs.

The Japanese; their history appears to be fabulous, and is often confounded with that of the Chinese; their founders are still less known than those of the latter.

The Scythians descended, according to the Bible, from Magog, son of Japhet. Settled at first near the Araxes, they got possession of Asia Minor, in the VIIth. century before J. C. and penetrated into Europe and Africa. Still they renounced their conquests and returned to their

By whom were they successively subdued? Who was Tippoo Saib ?- Where was he killed ?

Who govern India at present?

Are the Chinese much known to history?

What three personages are especially celebrated among them ?

By whom were the Chinese subdued in the XIIIth. century before J. C. ?-What is said of the Japanese ? From whom did the Scythians descend?

Where were they at first settled?

When did they get possession of Asia Minor? Into what other countries did they penetrate?
Did they retain their conquests in those countries?

own country. In vain did the Persians and Macedonians desire to subdue them; they were indomitable in their deserts. In the V^{th.} century after J. C. they united with the Sarmatians to invade the Roman empire. The Huns were Scythians.

IN AFRICA.

The Ethiopians were, it is said, of Indian origin, they passed for having civilized the primitive inhabitants of Egypt. A Greek author of the Xth century before J. C., Homer, calls them the wisest of mankind, and the favorites of the gods; but their history is unknown.

IN EUROPE.

The Cells, starting from the northern regions of Europe and Asia, undertook a great number of migrations; they spread themselves through the whole of Europe, and penetrated into Asia Minor. The Druids were their priests, the bards their poets. The Gauls were Celts.

The Basques, one of the most ancient nations of Europe, descended probably from the Iberians of Spain, whose origin is lost in the night of time. They speak a primitive language, foreign to all those with which we are acquainted, with the exception of some latin and German

Did the Persians and Macedonians succeed in subduing them?—What did they do in the Vth. century after J. C.?

Of what origin were the Ethiopians?

What influence are they thought to have exerted on the primitive inhabitants of Egypt?—What does Homercall them?

Is their history much known?

From what quarter of the globe did the Celts proceed?

Into what countries did the emigrate?

What is said of their idiom?

Who were their priests and their poets?
From whom were the Basques descended?

What sort of language do they speak?

words. They have been subdued successively by the Romans, the Visigoths and the Arabs of Africa, and are found at the present day on both sides of the Pyrenees, in France and Spain. The bravery and address of the Basques are celebrated in ancient times.

People whose history is known.

The Egyptians had for their founder Menes, in the XXVth. century. They were governed during XIX centuries by their own kings, until Cambyses, king of Persia, subdued them, under their last king Psammenitus, (VIth. century); Alexander the Great, king of Macedonia, united their country to his vast empire (IVth. century.) One of the generals of that conqueror, Ptolemy Lagus, mounted the throne of Egypt, and was the head of the family of the Lagides, which governed it until the death of queen Cleopatra, vanquished at Actium by Octavius (Ist. century before J. C.) The Egyptians were from that time subject to the Romans. After the fall of the Roman empire of the West, (Vth. century after J. C.), they passed under the dominion of the Arabs, VIIth. century after J. C.), and since the XVIth century they have been a dependency of the Turkish empire. They are governed by a vice-roy called Mohammed Ali, who is now virtually independent of the Porte.

By whom have they been successively subdued?

Where are they found at present?

For what were they celebrated in ancient times?

How long were the Egyptians governed by their own kings?—Who subdued them in the VIth century before J. C.? What did Alexander the Great do to them?

After his death who mounted the throne of Egypt?

How long did the Lagides govern?

To whom were the Egyptians subject after the death of Cleopatra?

Under whose laws did they next pass?

Of what empire were they a dependency from the XVIth. century until Mohammed Ali?

The Assyrians had for their founder, Belus, in the XXth century before J. C. and shone under Ninus and Semiramis, who extended to a distance the bounds of their dominions; their first empire was destroyed under the feeble Sardanapalus, in the VIIIth century. Three kingdoms rose upon its ruins: that of the Medes, that of the Babylonians, and that of the Ninevites, which were united to the empire of the Persians by Cyrus in the VIth century.

The Hebrews had for their first patriarch, Abraham (XXIII^{rd.} century.) Jacob, his grand-son, quit the land of Canaan and went to settle in Egypt; but the Hebrews having there been reduced to servitude, Moses brought them out of that state: afterward they fixed themselves in Judea, and were governed at first by judges, and afterwards by kings. They separated into two kingdoms, that of Israel and that of Judah, which were successively subdued by the Assyrians and the Babylonians. After seventy years of captivity, Cyrus permitted the Hebrews to return to Palestine; they were then governed by the high-priests. They fell into the power of the Romans, under the emperor Titus, who took and destroyed Jerusalem (Ist. century after J. C.)

The Phenicians had for their founder Agenor (XVIIth. century.) Navigators and merchants, they founded nu-

Under whom did the Assyrians begin to flourish?
Under whom was their first empire destroyed?
What three kingdoms rose upon its ruins? '
Where did Jacob, the patriarch of the Hebrews, settle?
What befel them there?—By whom were they rescued?
Where did they afterwards settle?
How were they governed?
Into what two kingdoms did they separate?
By whom were these kingdoms subdued?
What befel them after the captivity?
By whom were they then governed?
Under whose power did they next fall?
What was the chief employment of the Phenicians?

merous colonies, such as those of Carthage, Gades, &c. They were successively subdued by the Assyrians, the Babylonians, the Persians, the Macedonians, the Romans, the Arabs, the Mamelukes and the Turks; these last are at the present day the masters of *Phenicia*, which made

a part of Syria.

The Greeks held, for a long time, the first rank among the nations; they recognized for their founder Cecrops, (XVIth century.) Four memorable ages or epochs have marked their history. In the first age many cities were founded, and many fabulous events are comprised; it was the infancy of Greece. In the second age the Peloponessus was invaded by the Heraclidæ, or descendents of Hercules; sage laws were given by Lycurgus to Sparta, by Draco and Solon to Athens; this was the youth of Greece. In the third age the Greeks shone in the arts, sciences and arms: this was the flourishing period, or the manhood of Greece. In the fourth age, Greece was successively subdued by the Macedonians and the Romans, who reduced it to a Roman province, (Had century before J. C.).

The principal nations of Greece were: the Athenians, the Thebans, the Spartaus, the Corinthians and the Mycenians.

The Athenians, of whom Cecrops was the founder, were successively governed by kings and archons. Subdued by the Lacedæmonians, thirty tyrants reigned over

Did they found any colonies?

By whom were they successively subdued? Who are at present masters of Phenicia?

How many memorable epochs mark the history of the Greeks?

What is said of their first epoch? Their second? Third? Fourth?

What were the principal nations of Greece?

By whom were the Athenians successively governed?

Who reigned over them after they were subdued by the Lacedemonians?

them. They recovered their liberty, which they preserved until the time when they were subjugated by the Romans, in the IInd. century before J. C.

The Thebans, who acknowledged Cadmus for their founder, were powerful under Epaminondas and Pelopidas, (IVth. century;) but having revolted against Alexunder the Great, that prince took and rased Thebes, their capital: afterwards, they became weaker by degrees, together with the whole of Greece, and fell under the dominion of the Romans.

The Spartans had for their founder Lelex, in the XVIth. century; they were, at first, governed by a succession of kings, who were dispossessed by the Heraclidæ or sons of Hercules: afterward, two kings reigned conjointly at Sparta: the laws of Lycurgus caused the prosperity of this people. They vanquished the Athenians; but they were subdued, with the whole of Greece, beneath the power of the Romans (IInd. century before J. C.)

The Corinthians, whose founder was Sisyphus, (XIVIII. century,) were successively governed by kings, and by magistrates, called prytanes; their commerce and wealth were the occasions of jealousy to the Romans, who rased Corinth, their capital.

Did they recover their liberty ?—How long did they retain it? When were they subjugated by the Romans?

Under whom were the Thebans powerful !

Against whom did they revolt in the IVth century before C.? What did Alexander do to them?

What befel them afterwards?

By whom were the Spartans at first governed?

Who dispossessed their first race of kings?

How many kings reigned there at once from the time of the Heraclide?—What caused the prosperity of the Spartans? What neighboring people did they vanquish?

By whom were they finally subdued? By whom were the Corinthians successively governed? What rendered them an object of jealousy to the Romana? What did the latter do to their capital?

The Mycenians had for their founder Perseus, in the XIVth century. The descendents of Hercules, or the Heraclidæ, put an end to their kingdom, which they confounded in that of Argos; Mycenæ, their capital, was utterly destroyed in the Vth. century before J. C. by the Argives, who were rendered jealous by the fact that this city had sent eighty warriors to Thermopylæ, to fight the Persians.

The Trojans had for their founders, Dardanus and Teucer (XVIth. century); they were governed by a series of kings, until Priam, under whom the siege and capture of Troy by the Greeks (XIIIth. century before J. C.) took place.

The Carthaginians, of Phenician origin, had for their founder Dido, sister of Pygmalion, king of Tyre (IXth. century before J. C.); they were celebrated by the extent of their commerce. Worthy rivals of the Romans. whom Hannibal, one of their greatest generals, vanquished several times: they succumbed to that nation in the third Punic war, and Carthage, their city, was reduced to ashes (IInd. century).

The Romans, the most celebrated people of antiquity, had for their founder Romulus, in the VIIIth. century; they were governed, during two centuries and a half, by seven kings; Romulus, Numa, Pompilius, Tullus Hostilius, Ancus Martius, Tarquin the Elder, Servius Tullius, and Tarquin the Proud; during five centuries, their

Who put an end to the kingdom of the Mycenians?

Who destroyed their capital? What provoked the Argives to this act?

By whom were the Trojans governed until Priam? Under whom did the siege of Troy take place?

By what were the Carthaginians celebrated?

Did they rival the Romans?

By whom were they finally conquered?
By whom were the Romans governed during two centuries and a half?

What form of government succeeded?

government took the form of a republic, at the head of which were the consuls: this is the brilliant epoch of the the Romans. They then subdued the nations of Italy, destroyed Carthage, reduced under their dominion the Macedonians, the Greeks, the Egyptians, and all known nations, except the Germans and the Parthians.

The empire succeeded to the republic; it lasted five centuries: Octavius was the first emperor. The Romans were then masters of the world; but the civil-wars, luxury, the vices and weakness of the greater part of the successors of Augustus, hurried the empire towards decay; in 476, that of the West was invaded by the barbarians, and new states rose upon its ruins: this was the origin of modern nations.

The Persians had for their founder Cyrus, one of the greatest conquerors of his age. Cambyses, his son, added Egypt to their vast empire; their wars against the Greeks, under Darius, son of Hystaspes, and under Xerxes, his son, had no durable success. Under Darius Codomanus the empire of the Persians fell into the power of Alexander the Great, king of Macedonia (IVth. century before J. C.)

The Macedonians had for their veritable founders, Philip and Alexander the Great, his son. Under the latter, Macedonia became the mistress of Greece; he traversed

Did they flourish under the republic? What nations did they then subdue?

What form of government succeeded the republic?

How long did it continue?

What was the condition of the Romans under the empire?
What were the causes which hurried the empire towards
decay?—What befel the Western Roman empire?

What was the origin of modern nations?

By whom was Egypt added to the Persian dominion?
Was the success of the Persian wars against the Greeks lasting?

What happened to the Persians under Darius Codomanus? Under whom did Macedonia become mistress of Greece?

Asia as a conqueror, possessed himself of Egypt and the Indias, and became master of half the known world (IV century.) At the death of the conqueror the vast empire of Macedonia was divided among his four generals: Cassander had Macedonia; Lysimachus, Thrace; Seleucus, Syria; and Ptolomy, son of Lagus, Egypt. All these kingdoms fell successively under the dominion of the Romans (I century before J. C.)

The Syrians were a very ancient people: they were commercial, populous and wealthy; they were governed at first by their own laws, and under sovereigns little known. They were successively subdued by the Assyrians, Persians, and Macedonians. At the death of Alexander the Great, Seleucus became their king and founder of the immense kingdom of Syria, which comprehended nearly the whole Persian empire. The Syrians were illustrious under the Seleucidian kings, the last of whom, Antiochus X, was dethroned by the Roman general Pompey, in the year 63 before J. C. Syria was then united to the Roman republic (I century before J. C.) In the middle age Syria fell into the power of the Saracens, and at the present day it makes a part of the Ottoman empire.

The Parthians, of Scythian origin, had for founder, Arsaces, chief of the powerful dynasty of the Arsacides. They resisted the Romans for a long time: but Artaxerx-

What countries did Alexander conquer? What became of his empire at his death?

Under whose dominion did the fragments of that empire finally fall?—What was the early state of the Syrians?

How were they at first governed?
By whom were they successively subdued?
What happened to them at the death of Alexander?
Was the kingdom of Sciencus extensive?
What befel the last of the Sciencidæ?

Under whose power did the Syrians fall in the middle ago? Who rules over them at present?

Did the Parthians long resist the Romans?

es, a simple Persian soldier, robbed Artabanus IV of his throne and his life, and the kingdom of the Parthians, which had lasted nearly five centuries, was transferred to the New Persians.

The New Persians had for founder Artaxerxes, chief of the dynasty of the Sassanides, so called from Sassan, his grandfather. Sapor I his son and successor, considerably extended the empire. The Arabians conquered the Persians in the VII century; but in the XV century a new dynasty rose: it was founded by Ismael Sophi, and it still subsists at the present day. The reigning prince (1847) is Feth Ali Sha, born in 1768.

The Roman Empire of the East became an empire by itself in the IV century after J. C. (366,) under the emperor Valens, from the time of the separation of the Roman monarchy into two parts. Three emperors, Gratian, Valentinian II and Theodosius the Great, for a moment reunited to it the empire of the West; but from the time of Arcadius, the son and successor of Theodosius (395) the two empires were always separate. empire of the West crumbled, in 470, beneath the blows of the Huns, the Visigoths, the Franks, &c. The empire of the East, called, also, the Lower empire, and the Greek empire, fell to decay through the vices of the government. Its provinces were successively invaded by the

Of what did Artaxerxes rob Artabanus?

To whom was the kingdom of the Parthians then transferred? Who extended the empire of the New Persians?

Who conquered them in the VII century?

Who founded a new dynasty among them in the XV?

Does it still subsist?

What is said of the Roman empire of the east in the fourth century after Christ?

What emperors reunited it for a season to the western empire?

After what emperor were the two empires permanently sundered? What caused the decay of the lower empire?

Saracens and the Turks. In the XIII century the Crusaders got possession of Constantinople, the capital, and founded a new empire, under the dominion of the Franks or Latins. After sixty years the Greeks recaptured it; but, in 1453 the empire of the East was destroyed by Mahomet II, emperor of the Turks (XV century). Turkey possesses a large part of it at this present day.

EXERCISES ON THE PRINCIPAL REVOLUTIONS OF THE NATIONS OF ANCIENT HISTORY,

OBSERVATION.

The pupil should repeat upon a map of the ancient world, the two first analyses, pointing out with promptness the cities and nations which are mentioned.

MODEL OF GENERAL QUESTIONS.

1. What are the principal nations of antiquity that you encounter in starting from China to go to Iberia, and what is the history of those nations?

[The points of departure and arrival should be changed continually. When the pupil has been sufficiently exercised, it will be well to interrupt him, and address to him separate questions concerning all the nations which he has studied. Afterwards he should be made to return to the explanation demanded of him in the first place, by the word: Continue.]

2. How does the ancient history of Egypt, Greece, Phenicia. &c. terminate?

What nations invaded it?—What did the crusaders do to it? Was it recaptured?—By whom was it finally destroyed?

- 3. Who are the great men spoken of in the history of Greece, and on what occasion are they spoken of? (The same for other nations.)
- 4. What cities are spoken of in Roman history; where are they situated?
- 5. How is the history of Egypt, that of Greece, &c. divided.

[These divisions should always be subordinate to the revolutions of the nations to which they belong.]

6. What nation united under its dominion Persia, Greece, &c.?

TO BE WRITTEN:

A table in which all the first analyses of the ancient nations shall be placed, with taste and propriety: in the middle, the map of the ancient world should be drawn; two columns should be devoted to the great men of each history, and to the cities of which mention is made in each of them.

History of the middle age.

POPES.

The name pope signifies father; it was formerly given to all bishops; but after Gregory VII a pope of the XI century, it was peculiar to the bishop of Rome.

The principal source of the temporal greatness of the pontiffs commenced under Pepin and his son Charlemagne (VIII century); but the greatest extension of the power of the Church took place under Gregory VII at the end of the XI century.

Under Urban II (XI century), the crusades com-

When did the temporal greatness of the popes commence? What was the epoch of the greatest extension of their power? Under whom did the crusades commence? menced; under Leo X of the family of the Medici, (XVI century), the revival of letters and the reformation of Luther took place; under Clement VIII (XVI century), the separation from Rome, or the religious re-

form of England.

The French, under Napoleon, invaded the States of the Church, two popes were led prisoners into France, Pius VI and Pius VII (XVIII century); but in 1815 the congress of Vienna restored to the holy see its property, with the exception of the country of the Venaissin.

Pius IX is at present pope (1817).

THE FRENCH.

The Franks obtained possession of Gaul during the decline of the Roman empire, and under Clovis, their king, (V century,) they founded the kingdom of France. Three principal races or dynasties have governed the French until the present day.

The Merovingian, under which we remark the establishment of christianity, and the defeat of the Saracens by Charles Martel, a French prince. The feebleness of the

kings caused the fall of that dynasty.

The Carlovingian, under which we notice Charlemagne, (VIII century,) who extended his power over

What caused its fall?

What distinguished monarch of the Carlovingian dynasty? How far did he extend his power?

Under whom did the revival of letters and the reformation of Luther take place ?- The English reform ? Who invaded the States of the Church? What popes were led prisoners into France? What was done at the congress of Vienna? When did the Franks obtain possession of Gaul?

Under whom was the kingdom of France founded? How many dynasties have governed the French? What took place under the Mcrovingian?

almost the whole of Europe, but with whom the glory of the nation was for a time extinguished.

The Capetian, under which great events took place, such as the crusades, the wars with England, the Italian wars, and the religious wars. Among the families of this race, we distinguish that of the Bourbons, which raised France to its highest point of glory.

In 1789 a terrible revolution broke out, and in 1792 France was constituted a republic. Erected into an empire in 1804, it was governed by Napoleon, who gave laws to nearly the whole of Europe. Finally, after several alternations of success and defeat, the family of the Bourbons reascended the throne in 1811. The revolution of 1830 precipitated from it the elder branch of that family. The younger branch succeeded in the person of Louis Philippe I born the 6th of October, 1773. This new dynasty may be called the Orleanian.

LOMEARDS.

The Lombards came from the shores of the Baltic sea; they invaded the north of Italy, where they founded a kingdom under Alboin, their first king, in the VI century. Two centuries afterwards they were subdued by Charlemagne, king of France, who vanquished Didier,

What is said of the nation at his death?

What events took place under the Capetian dynasty?

What distinguished family of this race ?

What happened to France in 1789? When was it constituted a republic ?

When, and by whom, erected into an empire?

What family reascended the throne in 1814?

What was effected by the revolution of 1830? Who succeeded the elder branch?

Whence did the Lombards originally come?

What country did they invade?

Under whom did they found a kingdom in Italy? What befel them two centuries afterward?

their last king. Lombardy afterward made a part of the kingdom of France. After many vicissitudes, it has fallen to the empire of Austria.

SPANIARDS.

The Visigoths established themselves in Spain, after having vanquished the Suevi, the Alani and the Vandals; the monarchy which they founded was destroyed by the Moors in the VIII century; but by little and little they reconquered their provinces, and in 1474 (XV century) the marriage of Isabella of Castille, with Ferdinand V of Arragon, witnessed the commencement of the history of Spain properly speaking. The Moors were then expelled, and the house of Austria came to the throne in Spain. Charles Fifth (XVI century) was its hero, and Charles II its last king (1700). The house of Bourbon then inherited that country; Philip V, grandson of Louis XIV, was its first king. In 1808 Charles IV was obliged to abdicate the crown, which Napoleon gave to his brother Joseph. Ferdinand VII, son of Charles IV, reascended the throne in 1814: born the 14th. of October, 1784, he died the 29th of September, 1833. His daughter Isabella II succeeded him.

Of what kingdom did Lombardy form a part after Charle-magne?—Of what empire is it now a part?

What is said of the Visigoths?

By whom was their monarchy destroyed in the VIII century?—Did they re-establish it?

With what event does the history of Spain, properly speak-

ing, commence?-When were the Moors expelled?

When did the house of Austria begin to reign in Spain? Who was the hero of that house?—Who its last king?

What family next inherited the crown?

Who was obliged to abdicate the crown in 1808?

To whom did Napoleon give it?

When did Ferdinand VII reascend the throne?

ARABIANS.

The Arabians conquered, under Mahomet, their lawgiver, (VII century), a great part of Asia. After the death of their prophet, under their califs, they gained possession of the north of Africa and Spain, and advanced even into France, from which they were driven. The principal families which governed the Arabs are the Ommiades and the Abassides. After many vicissitudes the Turks reduced them under their dominion.

MOORS.

The Moors were a mixture of the descendants of the Mauritanians and of the Arabs or Saracens, who subdued them, and with whom they passed into Spain in the VIII century. They made themselves masters of that country, from which they were expelled, in 1492, by Ferdinand V, the Catholic. Boabdil was their last king.

SWEDES.

The origin of the Swedes is obscure; it does not become interesting before the XIV century, when Margaret of Valdemar united on her head the crowns of Norway, Sweden and Denmark (1397). The cruelties

Whom did the Arabians conquer under Mahomet? What did they accomplish under the califs. From what country were they repelled? What are the principal families which governed them? Under whose dominion were they finally reduced? From whom were the Moors descended? By whom were they subdued? With whom did they pass into Spain? Of what country did they make themselves masters? When were they expelled from it?—By whom? Who was their last king? With whom were the Swedes united in 1397?

of Christiern II caused a revolution which placed the crown of Sweden upon the head of Gustavus Wasa; in 1523 that prince established Lutheranism in his dominions.

Three families have governed Sweden: first, that of Wasa, (XVI century); second, that of Deux-Ponts, (XVII century); whose first king was Charles X, and its hero Charles XII, surnamed the Alexander of the North; third, the house of Holstein Eutin, whose first king was Adolphus Frederic (XVIII century). A revolution broke out in 1772 under Gustavus III, who was assassinated at a ball twenty years afterward. A French general, Bernadotte, reigned until recently over the Swedes, under the name of Charles XIV. Their present king is Oscar I. Norway was united to Sweden in 1815.

ENGLISH.

The English and the Saxons possessed themselves of Britain by treachery, and founded a heptarchy, which lasted until 827, when Egbert was appointed king of England. Many families have governed the English: the Saxons, (IX century), the Danes, the Normans, (XI century), the Angevins or Plantagenets, (XII century), the Lancasters, (XIV century), the Yorks, (XV

What produced a revolution in Sweden?

Upon whom was the crown conferred?

What religion did Gustavus establish in his dominions?

What three families have governed Sweden?

What happened there in 1772? Who was assassinated at a ball?

Who reigned until recently over the Swedes?

When was Norway united to Sweden? How did the English and Saxons get possession of Britain?

What did they found there?

When was the monarchy established there?

What families have governed the English!

century), the Tudors, (XVI century), the Stuarts, XVII century), and the house of Brunswick-Hanover. The most remarkable events of English history are: the wars of France, from William the Conqueror, (XI century), to Edward IV, (XV century); the civil war of the two Roses, or the pretensions of Lancaster and York to the throne, in the XV century; the schism or separation of England from Rome under Henry VIII (XVI century); the brilliant reign of Elizabeth; the revolutions which took place under Charles I, Stuart, who mounted the scaffold in 1649; and under William III, in 1688; finally the revolution of the Anglo-Americans (1782), under the house of Brunswick-Hanover (XVIII century). Victoria I, is at present on the throne (1847). She was born the 19th- of May, 1819.

THE POLES.

The Poles are of Sarmatian origin. The posterity of Lechus, their first founder, (VI century), being extinct, Piast was recognized as Duke of Poland in the IX century. The most remarkable family is that of the Jagellons. After its extinction the throne became elective.

At the end of the XVIII century great disturbances led to the partition of Poland, in three parts, between Prussia, Russia and Austria. At present Poland exists no longer as a particular kingdom; the duchy of Varsovia forms a vice-royalty which belongs to Russia.

What are the most remarkable events in the history of England?

What took place among the Poles when the family of Lechus became extinct?

What was the most remarkable family in that country? After its extinction how was the throne disposed of? What befel Poland at the end of the XVIII century? What is the present state of Poland?

In 1830 the Poles revolted against the Russians, but this attempt at liberty was not successful.

RUSSIANS.

The Russians descended from the ancient Sarmatians; they have been governed by many families, such as those of Rurick, (IX century), and of Valdinir, (X century); but the most celebrated is that of Romanof. Peter the Great, one of the princes of that house, raised Russia from obscurity, and gave birth there to the sciences, industry and commerce. Catherine II, of the family of Holstein-Gottorp, covered herself with glory by her great enterprises; her vessels pushed their navigation as far as the Dardanelles (XVIII century.) Nicholas I, her grandson, is at present upon the throne of Russia, (1847); he was born the 6th of July, 1796.

GERMANS.

The Germans inhabit the country of the ancient Allemani; they courageously resisted the Romans, who were not able entirely to subdue them. Charlemagne (VIII century) defeated that part of the nation called Saxons, constrained them to embrace the christian religion, and beheld himself master of Germany. At the death of Louis the Debonair, his son, Germany was separated from France. Lothaire was acknowledged king: the

What took place in Poland in 1820?
By what families have the Russians been governed?
Which is the most celebrated of them?
Who was the most famous prince of that house?
What did he accomplish for Russia?
How did Catherine II distinguish herself?
What country do the Germans inhabit?
What is said of them in reference to the Romans?
What did Charlemagne do to the Saxons?
What befel Germany at the death of his son?

Carlovingian race maintained itself there until 911, when it ended in the person of Louis IV, called the Infant.

Then the empire became elective. Conrad, Duke of Franconia and Hesse, was raised to the imperial dignity and may be regarded as the first emperor of Germany.

Towards the end of the XIII century (1273) Rodolph, Count of Hapsburg, first prince of the house of Austria, was acknowledged Emperor.

In 1519 the Empire was united to Spain in the person of Charles V; but that union ceased after his abdication, in 1554. The house of Austro-Lorraine is at present on the throne; but it reigns only over the Austrian empire. Ferdinand I, is emperor (1847). He was born the 19th of April, 1793.

DANES.

The commencement of the history of the Danes is uncertain. Towards the end of the XIV century Queen Margaret united under her sceptre the three crowns of the North. Sweden detached itself in 1523, but Norway remained united to Denmark, at first as a province, and afterward as an independent kingdom. The royal dynasty of Skioldung being extinguished in 1448, the Count Christiern of Oldenburg succeeded it and brought to Den-

What race maintained itself there till 911? In whom did the Carlovingian race terminate?

What did the empire then become?

Who was first raised to the imperial dignity?

Who was acknowledged emperor towards the end of the XIII century?

When and in whose person was the empire united to Spain?

When did that union cease?

What house is at present on the throne?

To what country is its dominion confined? When were the Danes united to Norway and Sweden?

Was this union permanent?

What dynasty became extinct in 1448 ?- Who succeeded it?

mark the two fine provinces of Sleswick and Holstein.
In 1660 a revolution took place which entirely changed the form of government.

At the commencement of the XVIII century, Denmark had to sustain against Sweden an unhappy war, which did not terminate until 1720. After that epoch it enjoyed peace until 1801 and 1807, when Copenhagen was bombarded by the English. In 1813 and 1814 Denmark formed a part of the coalition against France. Norway was ceded to Sweden in 1815. Christiern VIII is at present upon the throne (1847). He was born the 18th of September, 1786.

HUNGARIANS.

The Hungarians occupy a considerable part of the ancient Pannonia, which was twice conquered by the Huns: Charlemagne, in 764, united it to the French monarchy. Saint Stephen is regarded as the first king of Hungary (in the middle of the X century).

Charles Martel, son of Charles of Anjou, king of Naples, and of Mary, daughter of Stephen IV, king of

Hungary, succeeded to the crown in 1302.

In the XIV century (1383) the emperor Sigismond, king of Bohemia, became king of Hungary by right of

What accessions did he bring to Denmark?

What took place in 1660?

What war did Denmark carry on during the XVIII century?—How long after this did it enjoy peace?

By what event was the peace broken up? What is said of Denmark in 1813-14? What cession did she make in 1815? Who is the reigning king of Sweden?

By whom was the country of the Hungarians twice conquered?

What befel Hungary under Charlemagne? Who was the first king of Hungary? Who succeeded to the crown in 1302?

Who became king of Hungary in 1383 by right of his wife?

his wife, but, in the XV century (1438) that kingdom recovered anew its independence under the empire of Uladislas.

In the XVI century (1540) Solyman, sultan of the Turks, possessed himself of the better part of this country, and the emperor, Ferdinand I, seized the rest.

In 1687 Leopold Ignatius caused the crown of Hungary, which was hereditary in the house of Austria, to pass to the head of the arch-duke Joseph, his son, who became emperor, under the name of Joseph II. Since that time the kingdom of Hungary has depended on the Austrian empire.

NEAPOLITANS AND SICILIANS.

The kingdom of Naples occupies the ancient Magna, Grecia; that southern part of Italy passed successively to the Romans, the Goths, the Lombards, and the Arabs, until the time when the Normans, returning from the holy land, took possession of it (XI century).

The sons of Tancred of Hauteville, Norman seigneurs, caused themselves to be named dukes of Apulia and Calabria; the first duke was Robert Guiscard; his grandson, Roger II, was created king of Sicily and duke of Naples.

The emperor Henry IV, of the family of Suabia, united Sicily to the empire (XII century); but at the extinction of that house the pope, Urban IV, gave the crown

What country does the kingdom of Naples occupy ? What nations successively possessed that country! Who caused themselves to be nominated dukes of Apulia

and Calabria?

Who was created king of Sicily and duke of Naples? Who united Sicily to the empire?

When, and under whom, did that country recover its independence ?-What befel it in the XVI century ? What happened to Hungary in 1687?

of Naples and Sicily to Charles of Anjou, brother of Saint Louis: under that prince, the massacre of the French, called the Sicilian Vespers, took place. After many vicissitudes, after having experienced reverses and obtained success, the French beheld themselves obliged to renounce the kingdom of Naples, to which they had claims; and in 1734 the infanta of Spain, Don Carlos, son of Philip V, and great-grand-son of Louis XIV, mounted the throne. In him began the Sicilian house of Bourbon, represented at present by Ferdinand II (1841). He was born the 12th of January, 1810.

PORTUGUESE.

Portugal, formerly called Lusitania, made a part of Spain until the XII century, (1139,) the epoch at which Alphonso Henriquez, of the family of the Capets, took the title of king. The dynasty of Avis succeeded that of Capetian Burgundy in 1383; John I was its first king. It was under this family, and especially during the reign of Emmanuel the Great, that the Portuguese became very powerful by their conquests in the two Indies. The Spaniards commanded in Portugal from 1580 to 1640. The house of Braganza then ascended the throne in the

What massacre took place under Charles of Anjou?
What is said of the French claims to this country?
Who mounted the throne in 1734?
What royal house began in him?
By whom is that house at present represented?
What was Portugal formerly called?
Of what country did it make a part until 1139?
Who became king at that epoch?
What dynasty succeeded?
What is said of Portugal under Emmanuel the Greet?

What happened at the extinction of the Suabian family?

What is said of Portugal under Emmanuel the Great? During what period did the Spaniards command in Portugal? What family then ascended the throne? person of John IV, and still occupies it. Donna Maria is at present on the throne (1847). She was born the 4th. of April, 1819.

BOHEMIANS.

It is thought that the Bohemians are the descendants of the Boiæ, Gauls of the Bourbonnaise, who, in the VI century before J. C., went, under the conduct of Sigovesus, to found a colony in Germany; they were driven out by the Marcomanni, afterward by the Esclavonians. Zecco, at the head of a powerful army, came from the Cimmerian Bosphorus, and advanced into Bohemia in the VI century after J. C. Bohemia was formerly a dependency of the Empire. In 1648 the crown was acknowledged hereditary in the house of Austria, which had long possessed it by election.

SWISS.

The Swiss formerly bore the name of Helvetians; in the XIII century Helvetia depended on the German empire. A part of that country was the domain of the house of Austria, as Fribourg, Lucerne, Zug, Glaris. The tyranny of the imperial governors exasperated men's minds; under the emperor Albert, the cantons of Schwitz, Uri, and Unterwald, gave the signal of independence.

Who reigns there at present?

From whom are the Bohemians thought to have descended?

Who drove the Boiæ from Germany?

What is said of Zecco?

Was Bohemia once a dependency of the empire?

What took place in 1648?

What were the Swiss formerly called? Of what was Helvetia a dependency?

To whom did a part of that country belong?

What exasperated the minds of the Helvetians ?

What took place among them under the emperor Albert?

A formidable army of Germans was conquered at the pass of Morgarten. In 1308 Switzerland had become free, and her independence was acknowledged at the treaty of Westphalia, in 1648. Among the liberators of Switzerland, we notice William Tell, celebrated for his address in archery (XIV century).

The Swiss confederation successively increased: it reckoned at first thirteen cantons; Napoleon, in 1802, added to it six, and in 1815 the allied powers united to it those of Geneva and the Valais, and that of Neufchatel, which acknowledged the king of Prussia as sovereign.

Revolutions agitated that country in 1833.

Modern History.

TURKS.

The Turks are originally from Asia; they possessed themselves of Asia Minor, and under Othman or Othoman, they founded a monarchy (XIII century) which became powerful; in 1453 Mahomet gained possession of Constantinople and a part of the countries which composed the Eastern empire; since that time great disturbances and revolutions have agitated the Turkish government,

Who were conquered at the pass of Morgarten?

When was Switzerland enfranchised?

When and where was her independence acknowledged?

Who is distinguished among her liberators! Has the Swiss confederation increased?

What was the state of Switzerland in 1833?

Where did the Turks originate?

Of what country did they possess themselves? What is said of the monarchy which they founded there?

Of what countries did Mahomet gain possession?

What has been the state of the Turkish government since the time of Mahomet?

from which the powers of Europe have detached Greece. Abdul-Medjib is now upon the throne (1847); he was born the 19th of April, 1823.

AMERICANS IN GENERAL.

It is supposed that America was known to the ancients, but it was only in 1492 that a Genoese named Christopher Columbus, seeking a passage to the west, by which to reach the Indies, made the first discovery of it for us. Starting from Gomera, one of the Canaries, in three vessels which Isabella of Castille, the wife of Ferdinand V had given him, he touched at San Salvador or Guanahani, one of the Bahama islands. In several successive voyages, he discovered the great and little Antilles, which he named the West Indies; finally, in 1498 he saw the continent to which the name of America was given, from Americus Vespucius, a Florentine navigator, who sailed along its coasts, and published in Europe the narrative of his voyage.

ANGLO-AMERICANS .- (UNITED STATES.)

In the XVI century, under the reign of Elizabeth, the English, at whose head Walter Raleigh was found, formed colonies upon the coasts of North America. The possessions of these new colonists received successively large increase; but the mother-country having attempted to subject them to the payment of imposts, they revolted

What country has been detached from Turkey by the powers of Europe?

Who is now upon the throne?

Was America known to the ancients?—Who discovered it in modern times?—Can you describe his first voyage?

What did he discover in subsequent voyages?

After whom was America named?

At what time were colonies first founded on the coasts of North America?—By whom?—Did these colonies increase? What caused the revolution?

and made themselves independent. In 1782 they constituted themselves a republic, and their first president was George Washington, who had commanded the American armies during the war. Since then the possessions of the United States have been extended, and at present that republic numbers twenty-six States.

MEXICANS.

In 1520 the Spaniards, commanded by Fernando Cortez, a simple lieutenant of Velasquez, governor of Cuba, effected the conquest of Mexico. The native Mexicans, already civilized, were at that time governed by Montezuma, who was made prisoner by Cortez, and whom his own subjects slew in an insurrection. The Spaniards continued masters of Mexico until 1821, the epoch of a revolution which terminated by the acknowledgment of Mexican independence. Afterward, an obscure leader, named Iturbide, caused himself to be acknowledged emperor; but he did not reign long, and the Mexicans are still, at the present day, constituted as a republic.

PERUVIANS.

The Peruvians were governed nearly four centuries by kings named Incas; industry had made much more

When did the colonies form themselves into a republic?

Who was their first president?

Have the possessions of the United States since increased?

Of how many states do they now consist?

Who conquered Mexico in 1520?

By whom were the Mexicans then governed?

What became of him?

How long did the Spaniards continue masters of Mexico?

What took place in Mexico in 1821?

Who was afterward acknowledged emperor?

Did he reign long?

Under what form of government are the Mexicans at present?

By whom were the Peruvians governed for four centuries?

progress among them than with the Mexicans, when a Spaniard named Francis Pizarro subdued them in 1525. Atabalipa at that time occupied the throne; he was strangled by the Spaniards. In 1808 a revolution broke out, and Peru was deffinitively declared a republic in 1821. General Saint Martin was appointed protector. General Santa Cruz was appointed president in 1838.

BRAZILIANS.

Pierre Alvarez Cabral, a Portuguese admiral, having been driven westward by head-winds, discovered the coast of Brazil in 1500.

The Hollanders got possession of that country in 1624; but, after many vicissitudes, the Portuguese recovered full possession of it in 1661, by paying eight tuns of gold to Holland.

In 1824 Don Pedro, at first vice-roy of Brazil for his father, John VI, king of Portugal, took the title of emperor. A military revolution compelled him, in 1831, to fly to Europe; Don Pedro II, his son, succeeded him; he was born the 2nd. of December, 1825.

COLUMBIANS.

The Columbians, who inhabit the northern part of south America, once belonged to the dominion of Spain;

In what are they said to have surpassed the Mexicans?

Who subdued them in 1525?

What inca then occupied the throne?

What became of him?—What happened in 1808?

When was Peru declared a republic?

Who was appointed protector?-Who president in 1838?

Who discovered Brazil?

Who got possession of the country in 1624?

When did the Portuguese recover possession of it, and how?

Who became the emperor of Brazil in 1824?

Why was he compelled to fly to Europe, and when?

Who succeeded him?

Under whose dominion were the Columbians originally?

but after many revolutions, the independence of Columbia was proclaimed in 1819. Bolivar, who had contributed to its enfranchisement, received the title of liberator. England formally recognised the republic of Columbia in 1825.

BUENOS AYRIANS.

Buenos Ayres was originally a Spanish colony. In 1806 the English made a descent upon that country, but they were repulsed by general Liniers. In 1810 the inhabitants revolted from Spain, and the independence of Buenos Ayres was proclaimed in 1816.

CHILIANS.

Almagro, the companion, and afterwards the victim of Pizarro, first penetrated into Chili; but it was Peter Valdivia who subdued that country, in 1540. He built San Iago and La Conception. Chili was occupied with achieving her independence in 1810, and in 1818 was erected into a republic.

HAITIENS.

The island of Saint Domingo was discovered by Christopher Columbus in 1492. The Spaniards remained

When was their independence proclaimed?

Who received the title of liberator?

By what nation was the republic of Columbia recognised in 1825?—What was Buenos Ayres originally?

Who made a descent on that country in 1806?

By whom were they repulsed?

What events took place in Buenos Ayres in 1810 and 1816?

Who first penetrated into Chili?

Who subdued that country in 1540?

What cities did he build?

How was Chili occupied in 1810?

When was it erected into a republic?

When and by whom was Saint Domingo discovered?

masters of it until the XVI century, when a colony of French and English united, took possession of the country. Driven out in their turn by the Spanish, they withdrew to the island of Tortuga. France, at a later period, possessed herself of a part of the island. In 1791 an insurrection broke out, and the whole French part of the island presented nothing but a field of carnage and desolation: the Blacks and the Mulattoes slaughtered the Whites. In 1801 the Blacks proclaimed their independence. After many internal revolutions, the enfranchisement of Saint Domingo was acknowledged by France, under Charles X; and Boyer was chosen president in 1841.

HOLLANDERS AND BELGIANS.

Holland was formerly a part of Belgic Gaul; it was conquered in the I century by Julius Cæsar; it afterwards passed successively to the Franks, the counts of Hainault, the dukes of Burgandy, and the house of Austria. The king of Spain, Philip, by his tyranny, lost that country, whose independence was recognised at the treaty of Munster or Westphalia, in 1648. In 1794 Holland was invaded by France, the stadtholderate abolished, and the country constituted into the Batavian republic. In 1806,

Who were masters of it until the XVI century? Who next took possession of it?

By whom were they driven out?

What country afterward possessed a part of the island?

What happened in 1791?

When did the Blacks proclaim their independence?
Under whom did the French acknowledge the enfranchisement of Havti?—Who was its first president?

Of what Roman province was Holland once a part? By whom was it conquered in the I century? To whom did it afterward successively pass? What monarch lost that country by his tyranny? Where and when was its independence recognised? What took place in 1794?—In 1306?

Bonaparte made a kingdom of it, in favor of Louis, one of his brothers, but he soon divided the kingdom into departments which he united to France. In 1815 Holland was reunited to Belgium, and formed only one kingdam, under the name of the Low Countries (Pays-Bas); William I of Orange became its king; but in 1830 the Belgians revolted, and the separation of the two states was proclaimed by the powers of Europe. William of Orange retained the throne of Holland; he was born the 24th. of August, 1772. Leopold of Saxe Coburg ascended that of Belgium; he was born the 16th. of December, 1790.

PRUSSIANS.

The Prussians, of Sarmatian origin, were not constituted a monarchy until 1701. Frederic, elector of Brandenburg, was their first king; his grandson, Frederic II, surnamed the Great, at his accession to the throne in 1740, invaded Silesia by the assistance of France; he had to sustain, in 1756, a formidable coalition: his genius prevented him from succumbing. William II, his successor, had a feeble reign; he dissipated the treasures amassed by Frederic. William III declared war with France, and formed a part of that coalition which brought the foreigners to Paris. Frederic William IV, his son, reigns at present (1847); he was born the 15th of October, 1795.

What occurred to Holland in 1805?

Who became its king?-What took place in 1830?

Who retained the throne of Holland?

Who ascended that of Belgium?

When were the Prussians constituted a monarchy? Who was their first king?—Who his successor?

What country did he invade?—How was he occupied in 1756?—What is said of William II?

Who is the present king of Prussia?

SARDINIANS.

The Sardinian States are composed of Savoy proper, Piedmont and Sardinia. Savoy was, under the Romans, included in Transalpine Gaul; it passed successively to the Burgundians and the emperors of Germany: and in the XI century (1040) Conrad, emperor of Germany, gave it in full property to Humbert the whitehanded Saint Maurice, the Valais, and the Chablais. His descendants soon extended their dominions by their conquests. Meanwhile the sovereigns had only the title of counts of Savoy; Amedeus VII took the title of duke, and Victor Amedæus II, in 1713, being master of Sicily, caused himself to be declared king. Sardinia was afterward given him in exchange for that island; hence the title of king of Sardinia, which was accorded him in 1718. Charles Albert, born the 2nd of October, 1798, reigns at present; he is of the family of Carignan.

BAVARIANS.

Bavaria anciently made a part of the Rhætis, of Vendelicia and of Noricum. The Boiæ came to inhabit it under the emperor Augustus; it was successively governed by kings, dukes, counts dependent on Charlemagne, and by the electors of Bavaria. On the 1st. of January,

How are the Sardinian states composed?

What changes has Savoy undergone from the time of the Romans?

What did the descendents of Humbert accomplish?

What title had the sovereigns of Savoy until the time of Amedæus III?—What title did he assume?

Who was declared king in 1713?

What country was given him in exchange for Sicily? How did the title of "king of Sardinia" originate?

Of what countries did Bayaria anciently form a part?

Under whom did the Boiæ take possession of it? By whom was it governed until Maximilian?

1805, Maximilian Joseph assumed the title of king. Bavaria has since been considerably enlarged. Louis I is its present king (1847); he was born the 25th of August, 1786.

SAXONS.

The Saxons, in the time of Charlemagne, (VIII century), extended as far as the banks of the Rhine; Witikind, their chief, struggled a long time against the entire strength of the empire, and was finally subdued. It is in the 1X century that the series of the dukes of Saxony, which is continued to the present time, begins. From the period of the dissolution of the Germanic body, electoral Saxony was erected into a kingdom (1806) in favor of Frederic Augustus. It was dismembered in 1814, by the congress of Vienna, in favor of the king of Prussia. The reigning king is Anthony, born the 27th of December, 1755; the co-regent, Frederic Augustus Albert Maria, nephew of the king, was born the 18th of May, 1797.

WURTEMBURGERS.

Wurtemburg formerly made a part of the duchy of Suabia, and was erected into a county by the emperor Henry IV, (XI century,) in favor of Conrad. The dukes of Wurtemburg were dependents of the empire.

What title did he assume?

Has Bavaria been since enlarged?

How far did the Saxons extend in the time of Charlemagne?

What is said of Witikind?

When does the line of Saxon dukes begin?

When was electoral Saxony erected into a kingdom?

When was it dismembered?—By whom?—In whose favor? Who is the reigning king?—Who co-regent?

Of what duchy was Wurtemburg formerly a part? By whom and when erected into a kingdom?

Of what power was the duchy of Wurtemburg a dependency?

Frederic II, clothed with the electoral dignity in 1803, was created king in 1805 by Napoleon. William, his son, reigns at present; he was born the 27th of September, 1781.

MODERN GREEKS.

Greece was subdued by the Romans in the II century before J. C.; she afterwards made a part of the eastern empire during eleven centuries. After the fall of that empire she remained for a long time under the dominion of the Turks. Enslaved under the heavy yoke of the Mahometans, she sought many times to reconquer her liberty; finally, in 1821 a bloody revolution broke out, which was terminated only by the intervention of the European powers, and especially of France. Greece is free; Capo d'Istria, one of the chiefs of the new republic, was assassinated in 1831. Greece has just been erected into a kingdom; Otho, of Bavaria, was her first governor (1841); he was born the 1st of June, 1815.

What is said of Frederic II? At what era was Greece subdued by the Romans? How long did she make a part of the Eastern empire? Under what dominion did she then fall? Did she seek to recover her liberty? What is said of the revolution in 1821? Who was Capo d'Istria? What was his fate? What is the present form of government in Greece? Who her first king?

FOURTH PART.

GENERAL HISTORY.

Brief Review.

ANCIENT HISTORY.

God gave birth to the universe, the first human beings incurred his vengeance; a terrible catastrophe left upon the earth only a single family, that of Noah. Human beings multiplied, families collected, nations were formed, emigrations proceeded from Asia, the cradle of the human race: the globe was peopled, governments were established, wants and communications gave birth to languages, commerce and the arts, and gradually force and justice lent each other mutual assistance.

Among the nations which succeeded one to another, we see the Egyptians, the most celebrated by their wisdom, by their laws and their arts; the Hebrews, long the privileged people of God, but whose vices and divisions caused their ruin; the Assyrians, whose luxury and wealth induced their fall; the Phenicians, commercial and industrious, who extended their relations into the greater part of the ancient world; they were the ancestors of those Carthaginians whom the Romans, after three bloody wars, effaced from the list of nations; the Medes and the Persians, two kingdoms formed from the fragments of the Assyrian empire, and who fell, like it, notwithstanding the genius of Cyrus, the conquests of Cambyses and the formidable expeditions of Darius and Xerxes; the Greeks, of Egyptian or Asiatic origin, who

performed one of the principal parts in ancient history: Egypt had formed their poets and lawgivers; they instructed their conquerors, the Romans, in their turn, and left even after their fall, a memory which their unequalled excellence in literature and the fine arts has rendered immortal; the Macedonians, who reckoned under their dominion Asia, Greece and a part of Africa, by the conquests of the great Alexander; and the Romans, whose history becomes, from his time, that of the whole world. Three great warriors made that conquering people tremble; Brennus, chief of the Gauls; Hannibal, general of the Carthaginians, and Mithridates, king of Pontus. From a monarchy Rome had become a republic; from a republic it became an empire. A single man commanded the earth; but the greater part of these dominators were tyrants. One of the emperors, Constantine, under the auspices of a beneficent religion, divided the strength of the empire by founding a new capital. From misfortune to misfortune, from fault to fault, the Roman colossus was weakened, and crumbled beneath the strokes of a multitude of barbarous nations, and upon its ruins (476) new States arose, which still exist.

History of the Middle Age.

The Visigoths, the Vandals, the Suevi, the Alani, the Burgundians, the Franks, the Lombards, the Angles and the Saxons formed new States, (V century), in Spain, in the Gauls, in Italy and in Britain.

They wrought a complete revolution in government, laws, manners, literature and arts. The Franks ended by obtaining the preponderance; then began the secular power of the popes.

The Arabs, under their legislator, Mahomet, embraced a new religion which, with their empire, extended from Asia into Africa and from Africa into Spain. France herself, being threatened, was saved from the dominion

of the Moors by Charles Martel, whose grandson, Charlemagne, was the great man of his age; he renewed the Empire of the West, (800).

But, at the death of Charlemagne, (814), there were formed from the ruins of that empire new kingdoms which are the cradles of some of those of the present day.

Other States were established by the Normans, the Russians and the Hungarians. The feudal system or the power of the seigneurs soon extended itself over the whole of Europe; royal authority was effaced, the vassals ruled, anarchy was the consequence of this kind of government, which would have destroyed the monarchies, but for the usage, which could not be extinguished, of rendering faith and homage to the king. Chivalry came, in some sort, to repress the injustice of the great, for the enthusiasm of honor animated some of the feudal nobility.

Another power, as injurious as that of the seigneurs, since it was greatly abused, was that of the popes, who, after Gregory VII, formed the ambitious project of rendering themselves sovereigns of the world; their quarrels with the German empire troubled Europe during centuries.

The crusades, from the XI to the XIII century, had a powerful influence upon the state of the European nations; they developed intelligence, concentrated power in the hands of the king and diminished that of the grandees.

The establishment of communes, which was one of their consequences, caused ideas of liberty to spring up. Italy was covered with republics; the kingdoms of the Two Sicilies and of Portugal were founded; the great charter was given in England; the power of the pontifis diminished; Switzerland was detached from Germany; and, that the revolution might be the more complete, three great inventions hastened the progress of industry, the arts and literature, and came to influence the faculties of man and his political condition; these are:

- 1. That of gunpowder, (XIV century), which changed the art of war;
- 2. That of *printing*, which extended men's ideas by establishing communications between all the nations of the earth;
- 3. That of the compass, which permitted navigators to venture themselves upon the seas, and to which we owe the discovery of many new countries. An important event occurred to terminate the history of the middle age; that is the taking of Constantinople by the Asiatic barbarians, the Turks, having at their head Mahomet II (1453.)

Modern History.

The belles-lettres now began to flourish in Italy, in France and in England. A Genoese, Christopher Columbus, discovered America (1492.) Vasco de Gama, a Portugue se navigator, doubled the Cape of Good Hope and opened a route to the Indies. A religious reform, effected by a German monk named Luther, extended itself to all the countries of the world; it was of immense advantage to the temporal and spiritual interests of mankind, yet, by the bloody wars, of which it became the occasion, threatened to replunge Europe into barbarism.

The peace of Westphalia, in 1648, caused these religious quarrels to cease and became the basis of the political system of Europe. It was then also that the house of Austria was humbled, which, since Charles Fifth, had

aspired to universal monarchy.

France, under Louis XIV succeeded to the colessal power of Austria; the peace of Utrecht set bounds to her ambition (1713). Europe meanwhile was not delivered from the fear of an universal dominion; new powers, influential and formidable, arose. Frederick II, in Prussia, and Peter the Great, in Russia, deranged all the combinations of the treaty of Westphalia; the one, in the seven years' war,*threatned Germany; the other, at Pul-

tawa, humbled Sweden; their successors inherited their policy, and made Poland, whose vicious constitution caused its ruin, to disappear from the map of nations.

But a revolution more terrible than those of England under Charles I and William III came to trouble the civilized world of Europe; the most ancient family of Europe fell; a king died upon the scaffold; France, which had been during fourteen centuries a monarchy, erected herself into a republic, and soon a conquering soldier placed upon his head the crown of the descendents of Henry IVth. A military power grew into immense magnitude, and renewed the empire of Charlemagne. France, under Napoleon, gave law to Europe. But speedily disaster succeeded his brilliant victories, and the humbled European sovereigns formed a coalition against him; France was vanquished, her chief was overthrown, the Bourbons reascended the throne, and the treaty of Westphalia still serves as a basis to the political system of Europe. New revolutions, in France, Belgium, Poland, Italy, Portugal, and Spain, occurred in 1830, 1831, 1833, and 1834, to agitate all Europe, whose wishes and wants were for the general peace (1841).

The same enlarging views of human rights and social organization which led to these convulsions in the old world, induced the British colonies in North America to throw off the yoke of dependence on the mother country, and thus commence, under most favorable auspices, that experiment of popular government which hitherto has been so successful, and in which the dearest interests of humanity are involved.

MODEL OF QUESTIONS ON THE BRIEF REVIEW.

I shall give for example only two questions. The pupil says at the commencement: "Mankind, whom God had created immortal, incurred his vengeance." Let him be asked:

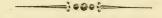
1. How did mankind, &c. incur his vengeance?

Further on, the pupil says, speaking of the Phenicians: "They extended their relations into the greater part of the ancient world."

2. Into what countries did the Phenicians extend their relations?

As in the historic narrations, the places, the great men, and the events, should be insisted on.

This brief review should be repeated upon a large map of the world.



CHRONOLOGY.

Principal events of Ancient History.

To be analyzed by means of the author's Elements of General History.*

PRIMITIVE TIMES.

4963. Creation of the world.

4833. Death of Abel.

Centuries.

XLIX.

L.

Before J. C.

XXIV. XXX.		Universal deluge. Dispersion of mankind.
	MYT	THOLOGICAL TIMES.
XXV. · XXIII.		Foundation of the kingdom of Egypt. Vocation of Abraham.

^{*} If that work be not accessible to the pupil, the analysis may be omitted, or the details of the event may be obtained from any history within his reach. It is taken for granted that the teacher will be able to determine as to the accuracy of the leading details of such an analysis, let them have been procured by the pupil from whatever source they may.

FOUNDATION OF EMPIRES.

Centuries. Before J. C.

2089. Foundation of Sicyon.

XXI. 2040. Reign of Mæris in Egypt.

2075. End of the Hyksos in Egypt.

2090. History of Joseph.

HEROIC TIMES.

Foundation of the most ancient cities of Greece.

XVII. { 1645. Departure from Egypt; law given.

XVI. 1645. Sesostris in Egypt.

The Egypt Sesostris in Egypt.

The Egypt Sesostris in Egypt.

XIV. 1350. Voyage of the Argonauts to Colchis.

POETIC TIMES.

Birth of the Fine Arts in Greece.

XIII. 1280. War of Troy.

Royalty among the Hebrews.

XI. \ 1080. Saul, king of the Hebrews.

1001. Reign of Solomon.

X. 991. Dedication of the temple.

HISTORIC TIMES.

Legislative period.

IX. \ \ 866. Legislation of Lycurgus. \ 860. Foundation of Carthage.

0::: 6.7 7

Origin of the Roman power.

VIII. { 776. First Olympiad. 753. Foundation of Rome.

Captivity of the Hebrews.

Capitolity of the Hebrews.				
Centuries. Before J. C.				
	(684.	Second war of Messenia.	
	1	667.	Combat of the Horatii and the Cu-	
7777			riatii.	
VII.		606.	Capture of Jerusalem by Nebuchad-	
			nezzar.	
	1	600.	First expedition of the Gauls.	
		G	lory of the Persians.	
	(594.	Solon at Athens.	
VI.	3	536.	Cyrus takes Babylon,	
	(525.	Cyrus takes Babylon. Cambyses possesses himself of Egypt.	
Mill	itary		ical, and literary glory of Greece.	
	(490.	Persian war.	
V.	?	431.	War of the Peloponnessus.	
	1	401.	War of the Peloponnessus. Retreat of the Ten Thousand.	
D	ismo		ent of the empire of Alexander.	
	(390.	Siege of Rome by the Gauls.	
	1	363.	Death of Epaminondas, conqueror at	
IV.	3	000.	Leuctræ and Mantinea.	
	1	335.	Conquests of Alexander.	
Rivalry of Rome and Carthage.				
	(264.	Punic Wars.	
III.	}		Rivalry of Hannibal and Scipio.	
	`	(Civil wars of Rome.	
	(149.	Subjugation of Greece.	
II.	3		Destruction of Carthage.	
	Ì	Con	quests of Julius Cæsar.	
	1	90.	War against Mithridates.	
	1	89.	Rivalry of Marius and Sylla.	
I.	1	58.	Conquest of the Gauls by Cæsar.	
		31.	Battle of Actium.	
	(29.	Octavius, emperor.	
	`			

AFTER THE VULGAR ERA.

Roman dominion over the known world.

Centuries. After J. C.

Reign of the twelve Cæsars.

Roman civilization under the Antonines.

II. 106. Conquests of Trajan.

Military Anarchy.

Defeat of Zenobia, queen of Palmyra. III. 269.

Division of the Roman empire.

Translation of the seat of empire to IV. 328. Byzantium.

Fall of the Roman empire of the West .- Invasions.

406. Invasion of barbarous nations.

418. The Franks in Gaul.476. Fall of the Roman empire of the West.

Establishment of modern States.

HISTORY OF THE MIDDLE AGE.

Political chaos.

Invasion of the Visigoths into Spain. VI.

Conquests of Belisarius.

Pontificate of Gregory the Great.

Military glory of the Arabs.

Rivalry of Fredegonda and Brunehaut, 613. VII. 622. Hegira of Mahomet.

Glory of the Frank monarchy.

712. The Moors in Spain.

Victory of Charles Martel over the VIII. Saracens.

Reign of Charlemagne.

Feudalism.

Centuries. After J. C.

802. Charlemagne, emperor of the West. IX. Feudal system under Charles the Bald.

Ignorance.-French Monarchy.

911. Conrad I, emperor of Germany.
912. The Normans in France.
962. Conquest of Italy by Otho the Great.
987. Introduction of Christianity into Russia, by Waldimir.
987. Accession of Hugh Capet.

Crusades.

1072. Pontificate of Gregory VII. XI.

1095. Commencement of the Crusades.

Communes.

1108. Establishment of communes in France, by Louis VI.
1139. Foundation of the kingdom of Portugal by Alphonso Henriquez.

Extension of Royalty.

1214. Battle of Bouvines.1215. Conquests of Genghis Khan.1282. Sicilian Vespers.

Discoveries .- Progress of the human mind.

1302. Discovery of the compass and of gunpowder.
1306. Helvetic confederacy; William Tell.

Invention of Printing.

Centuries.	After J. C. 1436. Invention of printing.	
XV.	1436. Invention of printing. 1452. War of the Two Roses. 1453. Capture of Constantinople by th	e
	Turks.	

MODERN HISTORY.

Discovery of America.

	(1474.	Union of the kingdoms of Castille
	1		and Arragon.
XV.	- !	1492.	Discovery of America by Christo-
)		pher Columbus.
	1	1492.	Moors driven from Spain.

Wars of Religion.

	- (1513.	Pontificate of Leo A.
	1	1517.	Reform of Luther and Zwingle.
XVI.			Rivalry of Francis I and Charles
			Fifth.
	- (1571.	Victory of Lepanto over the Turks

Politica	l, m	**	and literary influence of France und
		Kic	chelieu and Louis XIV.
	,	1618.	Thirty years' war.
XVII.		1640.	Revolution of Portugal.
	-1		Louis XIV.
)	1647.	Masaniello at Naples.
)		Peace of Westphalia.
	- 1		Execution of Charles I.
	-{	1688.	Rebellion of the Low Countries.
	-		Peter the Great.

Revolutions.

Succession of Spain.

Centuries.

After J. C.

1700.

1830.

1830.

1830.

1834.

XIX.

/	1740.	Succession of Austria.
1	$\cdot 1754.$	Seven years' war.
1	1772.	Revolution of Sweden.
	1783.	Independence of the United States
		acknowledged.
XVIII.	1789.	French revolution.
	1792.	French republic.
	1793.	Death of Louis XVI.
1	1796.	Campaign in Italy.
1	1798.	Expedition into Egypt.
	1798.	Revolution of Saint Domingo.
		· ·
POLITICA	L AND	MILITARY GLORY OF FRANCE
	U	NDER NAPOLEON.
	Conti	nuation of Revolutions.
	1804.	Napoleon, emperor.
/		Dethronement of the Spanish Bour-
	2000.	bons.
1	1814.	Restoration of the Bourbons.
-		Battle of Waterloo.
		War between the Russians and

Revolution of Paris.

Revolution of Belgium.

1831. Insurrection of the States of the

War of the Spanish succession.

Revolution of Poland.

Church.
1833. Revolution of Portugal.
1833. Revolution of Switzerland.

GREAT MEN.

- Ancient History.

Persons who	gave their	name t	o their	century.
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Remarkable Persons. Centuries before J. C. Cain, Abel. 50. Adam. Cain, Abel. 49. Seth. Shem, Ham, Japhet. 34. Noah. 30. Peleg (dispersion.) Fo-hi.

25. Menes.

23. Abraham. Lot, Chedarlaomer.

22. Egyaleus. 21. Joseph.

Uranus, Isaac, Esau, Mæris. Ninus, Inachus, Saturnus. 20. Semiramis. Apis, Isis.

19. Jupiter. 18. Ogyges.

Phoroneus. 17. Moses and Agenor. Amenophis, Prometheus, Se-

sostris. Cadmus, Deucalion, Danaus. 16. Cecrops. Minos.

15. Bacchus and Ceres. 14. Hercules.

Tantalus, Jason, Perseus, Ædipus. Theseus, Achilles, Hector,

13. Agamemnon and Priam.

Ulysses, Æneas. 12. Samuel. Codrus, the Heraclides. Saul, David. 11. Solomon.

10. Homer.

Jeroboam, Shishhak, Rehoboam. 9. Dido. Carsanus, Athalia, Lycurgus.

8. Romulus. Numa, Nabonassar, Tobias. 7. Nebuchadnezzar. Thales, Psammetichus, Judith,

Daniel, the Horatii.

6. Cyrus. Solon, Pisistratus, Pythagoras, Tarquin the Proud, Brutus, Confucius, Cræsus, Cambyses. Persons who gave their names to their centuries.

Cer	sons who gave their names to the sturies before J. C.	Remarkable Persons.
	Pericles.	Coriolanus, Miltiades, Leoni-
		das, Themistocles, Alcibiades,
		Socrates, Xenophon, Plato,
		Herodotus, Thasybulus.
4.	Alexander.	Aristotle, Epaminondas, Camil-
		lus, Phocion, Demosthe-
		nes, Brennus.
3.	Hannibal.	Publius Scipio, Pyrrhus, Pto-
		lemy Philadelphus, Aratus,
	•	Regulus, Archimedes, Agis,
		Philopæmon.
2.	The Gracchi.	Antiochus, Epiphanes, Paulus
		Emilius, Scipio Æmilianus,
		Zugurtha.
1.	Julius Cæsar.	Mithridates, Scipio Æmilianus,
		Marius, Sylla, Pompey, Cat-
		aline, Sertorius, Spartacus,
		Cicero, Cleopatra.
	CENTURIES AI	TER JESUS CHRIST.
1.	Augustus.	Mæcenas, Tiberius, Sejanus,
		Germanicus, Nero, Vespasi-
		an, Titus.
2.	Antoninus, Marcus	Trojan, Adrian.
	Aurelius.	
3.	Diocletian.	Zenobia, Aurelian, Artaxerxes.
4.	Constantine.	Julian the Apostate, Theodo-
		sius the Great, Ossian.
5.	Attila Clovis.	Odoacer, Merovæus, Theodo-
		ric, Syagrius.

MIDDLE AGE.

6. Justinian.

Belisarius, Narses, Alboin, Gregory the Great, Chosroes the Great, Fredegonda, Brunehaut.

Persons who gave their names to their centuries.

Centuries before J. C. Remarkable Persons.

- 7. Mahomet. Omar, Ali, Herac
- 8. Charlemagne.
- 9. Alfred the Great,
 Almamoun.
- Abdheraman III.
 Otho the Great.
- 11. William the Conqueror.
- 12. Saladin, Philip Augustus.
- 13. Genghis-Khan, Rodolph of Hapsburg.
- 14. Tamerlane, Edward III.

Omar, Ali, Heraclius, Ebroin, Pepin d'Heristal.

Charles Martel, Haroun-al-Raschid, Irene, Zachary, Witikind.

Eucles, Robert the strong, Rurick, Photius.

Rollo, Wladimir, Hugh the White, Hugh Capet.

Gregory VII, Alexis, Commenus, Canute the Great, Robert Guiscard, the Cid.

Richard Cœur de Lion, Alphonzo Henriquez, Eric, Fréderic, Barbarossa, the Abbe Suger, Thomas-á-Becket.

Othman, Saint Louis, Philip g. the Fair, Charles of Anjou, Boniface the VIII.

Margaret of Waldemar, Bajazet, William Tell, Rienzi, the Black Prince, Duguesclin.

MODERN HISTORY.

- 15. Mahomet II, Christopher Columbus.
- 16. Charles V, Leo X, Francis I.

Henry V, Ferdinand V the Catholic, Gonsalvo de Cordova, Joan of Arc, Charles the Rash, Louis XI, Albuquerque.

Henry VIII, Elizabeth, Luther, Gustavus Vasa, Catharine de Medicis, Emmanuel the Great, Gama, Magellan, Bayard, Pizarro, Cortez, Las Casas, the duke of Alba, Doria, Spinola, Machiavel.

Persons who gave their names to their centuries.

Centuries before J.C.

Remarkable Persons.

17. Louis XIV. Henry IV, Cromwell, Christine, Richelieu, Walstein,

Mazarin, Conde, Turenne, Marlborough, Eugene, Villars, Vendome, William III.

18. Peter the Great, Frederic II, Maria Theresa, Catharine II, Bonaparte, Charles XII. George III, Cook, Washington, Lafayette, Souwar-

Marat.

19. Napoleon. Alexander I, Mahmouth II, Kleber, Bernadotte, Canning.

row, Robespierre, Mirabeau,

OBSERVATIONS.

This secular list of great men furnishes one of the most useful exercises of the present work. It is necessary that the pupil be in perfect possession of it.

MODEL OF QUESTIONS ON THE CHRONOLOGY.

Five questions will suffice to make known the course which should be pursued in interrogating the pupil:

- 1. In what century did Hannibal live ?
- 2. How many centuries transpired from Hannibal to Louis XIV?
- 3. In what history do you find Hannibal; on what occasion is he spoken of?
- 4. Who is the most celebrated character in each century?
- 5. By what thought can you connect the persons of such and such a century?

FIFTH PART.

HISTORICAL SKETCHES.

Egyptians.

ANCIENT HISTORY.

From the origin of the Egyptian monarchy to the conquest of that country by Cambyses (525).—Religion—Governments—Arts and monuments.

It is supposed that the posterity of Ham and that of his

son Misraim peopled Egypt.

The Ethiopians, already advanced in civilization, established colonies there, and founded the nomes or States of Thebes, Elephantine, Heraclea, Thin or This, in Upper Egypt; and in the lower, called also middle Egypt, the nomes of a former Memphis, Mendes, Thanis, &c.

The dynasty of Thebes was then the most ancient and

powerful one.

The Ethiopians composed the two superior castes, the priests and the warriors.

The ancient inhabitants composed the two inferior castes.

Who are supposed to have peopled Egypt?

What nation afterward established colonies there?
Which was the most ancient and powerful dynasty of Egypt.

Who composed the two superior castes?

Who the two inferior?

The beginnings of the history of Egypt are obscured by a multitude of fables. At first the priests reigned in the name of the divinities. To this theocratic government monarchy succeeded.

The first king concerning whom we have historical notices is Menes, who drained the lower part of Egypt, and made it habitable. He is generally regarded as the propagator of Idolatry, on account of the worship which he established at Memphis in honor of Vulcan or fire, and afterwards of the sun, the earth and the stars.

After him fifty kings of his race reigned, whose very names are unknown; savage hordes, who doubtless came from Arabia, afterward governed Egypt, during more than five centuries, under the name of the Shepherd Kings or hyksos. These strangers were finally expelled from the country. The Egyptians then obeyed monarchs of their own nation. We notice in the number of these princes Thoutmosis, first king of the twelfth dynasty, who united Egypt under the same dominion, after having driven out the Arabs: Joseph was his minister; the infamous Busiris, who sacrificed all the strangers that came into his dominions; the powerful Osymandias, celebrated

By what are the beginnings of Egyptian history obscured? Who first reigned in Egypt? In whose name did they reign?
What form of government succeeded the theocracy? Who was the first king of whom we have historical notices? What is reported of him? Who succeeded him? By whom was Egypt afterward governed? Whence did they come? How long did they sway it ?- Under what title ? Why did their ascendancy terminate? Whom did the Egyptians then obey? Who was Thoutmosis ?-What did he perform ?

Who was his minister? What was the character of Busiris?

What did he do?

by his marvellous monuments, and who founded the first library, to which he gave the name of pharmacia, or remedy for the soul; a female named Nictoris, celebrated for her tomb and her library, and as cruel as the greater part of her predecessors; she built, it is said, the third pyramid; Mæris, who rendered himself as useful as any of his countrymen by digging the famous lake which bears his name: Amenophis, who caused the Hebrews to depart out of Egypt, after having overwhelmed them with painful labors. He was, they say, the father of Sesostris, the hero of Egypt, of whom he wished to make a conqueror. Accordingly he ordered all the children who were born on the same day as that prince to be brought up with the same careful and rigorous discipline, in order to accustom them, as well as their young master, to a hard and laborious life.

Sesostris, (1645,) with a prodigious army, invaded Asia by sea and land, even beyond the Ganges, took or pillaged many cities, and penetrated into Europe itself. He brought back into his dominions immense wealth and dragged in his train a great number of prisoners. After this senseless and destructive expedition, which lasted nine years, he began to become a wise and beneficent prince. He dismissed his soldiers and rewarded them, undertook immense labors, fortified his frontiers by a very

For what is Osymandias celebrated? What name did he give his library? For what is Nictoris celebrated?

What did she build?

How did Mæris render himself useful to his countrymen? What is said of Amenophis?—Whose father was he?

What did he wish to make of Sesostris?

What order did he give in reference to the children who were born on the same day with his son?

What are the warlike achievements of Sesostris? What is the character of his expedition into Asia? Did he afterward abandon his passion for war? What useful works did he undertake?

long wall; caused to be dug, from Memphis to the sea, a great number of canals, which served, on the one hand, to render the country less accessible to enemies, and on the other, to facilitate commerce. In his old age Sesostris became blind and committed suicide.

The successors of Sesostris are but little remarkable. They built those great pyramids of which the remains are yet admired, pompous monuments raised by their pride, yet which did not serve even to immortalize their names.

Egypt afterward fell into great disorder by a new invasion of the Ethiopians; soon after that invasion it was divided between twelve kings.

Psammeticus, one of them, (from 656 to 617,) vanquished the others, and remained sole master of the kingdom; he extended the maratime commerce which the Egyptians carried on with other nations, especially with Greece.

It is only in his reign that the history of Egypt begins to possess more certainty.

Nechao, his son, (from 617 to 601,) who extended navigation still further, caused, it is said, the tour of Africa to be undertaken by Phenician navigators, who started from the Red sea and returned by the Mediterranean.

Psammis reigned ingloriously, and Apries (594), after some unfortunate combats against the Lydians, was at first expelled and afterwards strangled in his palace of Sais by his own subjects.

Amasis, of base extraction, mounted the throne, (from 570 to 526); he made himself popular, and caused his in-

What became of him in his old age?
Were the successors of Sesostris remarkable?
What structures did they build?
Into what condition did Egypt afterward fall?
What was the cause of it?
What happened soon after the Ethiopian invasions?
What is said of Psammeticus?—Of Nechao?—Of Psammis?
Of Apries?—Of Amasis?

ferior birth to be forgotten, by the wisdom of his laws and the excellence of his administration. It was he who obliged the private in lividuals, in every city, to inscribe their names with the magistrate, and to declare the occupation by which they lived. He maintained relations with the Greeks, and received with bounty the legislator Solon and the philosopher Pythagoras, who owed much of their wisdom to his laws.

Under Psammenitus, the son of Amasis and his successor, the cruel Cambyses, king of Persia, invaded Egypt, slew the king and the principal citizens, exercised every where an equal fury, and gave the finishing stroke to it by the sacreligious murder of the ox Apis. Egypt then became a province of the Persian monarchy (525).

RELIGION.

The Egyptians worshipped the sun, the moon, the elements, animals, nature, whose productions they personified under the names of Osiris, Isis, Typhon and Nephthys. The ox Apis was the principal divinity of this people; the other sacred animals were the cat, the dog, the ichneumon, (called also the rat of Pharaoh,) the wolf, the crocodile, the falcon and the ibis. They believed still in the existence of one supreme God. Hence that celebrated inscription of the temple of Sais: I am all that which has been, is, and will be, and no mortal has yet lifted the veil that covers me.

GOVERNMENT.

The government of this kingdom was always monarchical, mixed with theocracy; but certain ancient laws

What is said of Psammenitus? What is said of the religion of Egypt? Of its government?

formed a sort of counterpoise to the despotism of the sovereigns; they were solemnly judged after their death, and received the honors of sepulture or were deprived of them, accordingly as they had lived and reigned well or ill.

JUSTICE.

The most important causes were tried by a tribunal of thirty members, chosen in the three great cities: Memphis, Thebes, and Heliopolis. Among the most remarkable laws, was one which forbid the son to take a different profession from that of his father; and another which punished with death every one who could not prove that he had honest means of subsistence.

The Egyptians were acquainted with all the arts and sciences known in their day, devoted themselves to them, and carried some of them to a high degree of perfection. They were particularly good geometers and astronomers.

Besides her famous pyramids, Egypt prided herself upon many monuments of the arts which posterity admires. Fine statues, remarkable rather for their majesty than their grace, are still met with every where in that land. The Sphynx, the statue of Memnon, the hundred gates of Thebes, the lake Mæris, the temple of Denderah, and the grottos of Osus, are the principal of these gigantic monuments.

The Egyptians taught the different branches of their science on the walls of temples and tombs, and on the numerous pillars called *Hermes*. They availed themselves, for this end, of an emblematical kind of writing

Of the administration of justice?

Of the state of the arts and sciences in Egypt?

Of her monuments?

Of the method of instruction in the sciences?

called hieroglyphic; besides this kind of writing, they were acquainted with two others: the epistolographic and the alphabetic.

MACEDONIAN DOMINION.

After the conquest of Egypt by Cambyses, many revolts broke out there. Amyrtaus of Sais, one of the kings whom the Egyptians had given themselves, drove the Persians from his kingdom, and reigned six years, always occupied with strengthening himself upon a throne shaken by so many concussions. Thus Egypt remained nearly two centuries, sometimes as a subject, sometimes as a vassal of other powers, and was frequently in a state of rebellion against its oppressors.

Alexander the Great (IV century), snatched it without difficulty from the Persians, made of it a Macedonian province, and seems to have entertained the design of establishing there the seat of his empire, by founding Alexandria, which speedily became the centre of an ex-

tensive commerce.

LAGIDES.

After the death of Alexander, Egypt became the portion of Ptolemy Soter, (that is to say, savior,) son of Lagus (the hare), to whom the Macedonian conqueror had left the government of it. The kingdom of Ptolemy comprehended, besides Egypt properly speaking, many other considerable countries of Africa and Asia which were in its vicinity.

Alexandria, by its advantageous position for commerce, became the capital of the new kingdom.

What was the state of Egypt under Amyrtœus? Under Alexander the Great?—Under Ptolemy Soter? What was the capital of the newkingdom? Ptolemy Soter (323-284) attracted into Egypt many Phenicians, Jews and Greeks, and favored commerce in general; accordingly, Alexandria very soon became one of the greatest and most opulent cities of the world.

Ptolemy founded the most numerous and celebrated library of antiquity, composed of Greek books, and placed in a vast edifice called the *Musaum*, for the use of a society of learned men whom that king maintained.

Ptolemy Philadelphus, (that is to say, who loved his brother, 284-246,) the son of Soter, continued these establishments with success, but tarnished his glory by the murder of two of his brothers. It was under the reign of this prince that the Greek version of the sacred books of the Hebrews, known under the name of the Septuagint, or version of the Seventy, was made, by his order.

Egypt was still as flourishing as it was strong under Ptolemy Euergetes, (benefactor, 246-221), the son and successor of Ptolemy Philadelphus. That king made-himself master of Syria and Cilicia, and subdued all the countries as far as Babylon. He had married his sister Berenice. That princess made a vow to consecrate her hair to Venus, if her husband should return from his expedition. On the return of Ptolemy she fulfilled her vow; and her hair having disappeared from the temple where it was suspended, the astronomer Conon reported that Jupiter had stolen it.

After Ptolemy Philopator, (who poisoned his father), the kingdom fell into the greatest confusion, through the vices and incapacity of its princes.

Whom did Soter induce to settle in Egypt? What effect had this immigration on Alexandria? What is said of the Ptolemæan library? What is said of Philadelphus?—Of Energetes? Of Berenice and Conon? What king of Egypt poisoned his father? Into what condition did Egypt fall after his death?

The Romans mingled themselves with the affairs of Egypt in order to derive advantage from them. Julius Cæsar put an end to the divisions which reigned in the royal family, in favor of Clcopatra, equally celebrated for her beauty and her intrigues. In the sequel, that princess having espoused Anthony, conceived the project of becoming queen of Rome; but after the naval battle of Actium she killed herself in order to avoid being led in triumph, as a captive, in the train of Octavius. Egypt became a province of the Roman empire.

During nearly seven centuries Egypt was successively in the power of the Roman empires of the west and the

east.

It was at the end of the VII century that the fanatic Omar, one of the successors of Mahomet, the lawgiver of the Arabs, and who carried every where desolation and carnage, burnt the library of Alexandria and subdued Egypt.

About the XII century (1171) the Turcomans drove out the califs, the successors of Omar, and were in their turn driven out by the Mamelukes, a kind of soldiery

which they had in their pay.

MODERN HISTORY.

The dynasty of the Mamelukes, whose chief took the name of soudan or sultan, reigned until 1517.

What nation then interfered with her affairs? What is said of Julius Cæsar and Cleopatra?

Of Cleopatra and Anthony?

What became of Cleopatra after the battle of Actium?

What did Egypt then become? How long did she continue under the Roman dominion? By whom was she next conquered and her famous library burnt ?- Who drove out the ealifs

By whom were the Turcomans expelled? Until when did the Mamelukes rule in Egypt? In the XVI century (1517) Selim I, emperor of the Turks, possessed himself of Egypt and abolished the monarchy of the Mamelukes; he thought to establish his authority there in a more certain manner by introducing a sort of aristocratic government, composed of twenty-four beys or chiefs of the Mamelukes, at the head of whom he placed a pacha (governor).

The form of government introduced by Selim I, answered the intentions of the Sultan sufficiently well during nearly two hundred years; but, towards the commencement of the XVIII century the bonds of it were relaxed and the pachas had only a shadow of power; the beys and the Mamelukes alone exercised an absolute empire, and unhappy Egypt, pillaged and devastated, lan-

guished in the most dreadful slavery.

In 1798 the French Republic sent troops into Egypt under the command of Bonaparte; the conquest which he made of it was brilliant and rapid. After a few combats the Mamelukes, dispersed and annihilated, left the government in the hands of those Europeans, who conducted themselves there like a civilized people. The French had gained over the Mamelukes the battle of the Pyramids (July 1st., 1798). At the end of about four years of unprecedented labors, undertaken by learned men, such as M. M. Monge, and Bertholet, Peyre, Monet and Mechain, Denon, Arnolet and Champy, Delisle, Savigny, and Conte, the French, forced by the English, who had joined themselves to the Turks, evacuated Egypt (1801).

The French general Kleber had been assassinated at Cairo by a young Syrian named Souley-Man (1800).

What did Selim I, do there?
How did be seek to establish his authority?
How did his form of government succeed?
What took place in Egypt under the French Republic?
By whom and where was Kleber assassinated?

After the departure of the French from Egypt, and the fruitless attempts of the English (1807) to occupy that country, it became the theatre of a bloody anarchy.

The Mamelukes and the pachas sent by the Porte disputed the power with each other; but Mehemit Ali finally succeeded, by his address, as much as by his valor, in

seizing the reins of authority there.

Mehemit Ali, a pacha endowed with great qualities, thought that it was necessary, for the tranquility of Egypt, to rid himself of this turbulent and despotic soldiery of the Mamelukes. On the 1^{-t.} of March, 1811, he shut up in the castle of Cairo, under the pretence of a ceremony, the beys and Mamelukes, to the number of five hundred, and caused them to be pitilessly massacred.

This terrible measure pacified Egypt, of which Mehemit was appointed vice-roy by the Porte. He has wrought salutary reforms in all the branches of the administration; he receives Europeans very kindly, and has succeeded thus far in the bold attempt of rendering him-

self independent of the Ottoman empire.

ASSYRIANS.

The Assyrians pretended to be the most ancient people on earth, and to occupy, by this title, the first place in profane history. But in order to have a precise idea of that monarchy, it is expedient to divide it into two kingdoms, that of Babylon and that of Assyria, which were united in the sequel by *Belus*, who left at his death the throne to his son Ninus, the inheritor of his father's courage. That prince made many conquests, and built Nineveh, a cele-

What followed the departure of the French? How did Mehemit Ali rid himself of the Mamelukes? What is said of his subsequent career? What were the pretensions of the Assyrians to antiquity? Into what two kingdoms were the Assyrians divided? What is said of Belus?—Of Ninus?

brated city situated on the eastern bank of the Tigris. After him Semiramis, his wife, governed the Assyrians, and extended her empire even to Ethiopia and Lybia. To her is attributed the foundation of Babylon, a superb city, whose palaces and hanging gardens were the admiration of antiquity.

The successors of Semiramis are almost unknown until Sardanapalus (753), a feeble prince, who was occupied solely with his own voluptuous pleasures. The name of this king is appropriated for characterizing those princes who seem to live for nothing but effeminate enjoyments.

Belesis and Arbaces, officers of Sardanapalus, put themselves at the head of the malcontents; the king committed suicide to avoid falling into their hands, and thus ended the first Assyrian empire. On its ruins rose three kingdoms: first, that of the Medes; second, that of the Ninevites; third, that of the Babylonians.

SECOND ASSYRIAN EMPIRE.

Medes .- (See the Persians.)

NINEVITES.

The kings of Ninevel retained the name of kings of Assyria, and were the most powerful. Among their conquests, that of the kingdom of Israel, or Samaria is reckoned.

Tiglath Pilezer had reigned at Nineveh a short time before the death of Sardanapalus. It was Salmanazar, his successor, who took Samaria after a siege of three years, and who put an end to the kingdom of Israel (718).

What is said of Semiramis? - Sardanapalus? - Belesis and Arbaces?

What was the end of Sardanapalus and the first Assyrian Empire !

What three kingdoms rose upon its ruins?
What is soid of the kings of Ninevch?—Of Tiglath Pilezer?

BABYLONIANS.

Belesis, who had united with Arbaces to dethrone Sardanapalus retained Babylonia for himself. His successors are little known, and the list which is given of them deserves no confidence. Esar-Haddon, king of Assyria, invaded this kingdom and confounded it with that of Assyria, under the common name of the kingdom of Babylon. He further added to his conquests Syria and a part of Palestine, detached from the Babylonian empire under the preceeding reign.

Babylon seemed to be born for commanding the whole earth: her people were full of spirit and courage. The East had scarcely any better soldiers than the Chaldeans. Wishing however to place everything beneath their yoke, they became insupportable to the neighboring nations. With the kings of Media and Persia, a large part of the nations of the East united against them. Two entire nations subject to the dominion of the Babylonians, which had become odious, joined themselves, together with the principal lords, to Cyrus and the Medes. Babylon, which thought herself invincible, became captive to the Medes, whom she expected to subdue, and finally perished by her own pride. Thus the Medes, who had destroyed the first empire of the Assyrians, again destroyed the second. But in this latter instance, the valor and the great name of Cyrus secured to the Persians, his subjects, the glory of that conquest.

HEBREWS.

The history of the Hebrews ascends to the highest antiquity. After the deluge, the descendents of Noah aban-

What part of the Assyrian Empire did Belesis retain? What is said of his successors?—Of Esar Haddon? Of the revolt of the Medes under Cyrus? What is said of the history of the Hebrews?

doned themselves to idolatry. God determined to produce a people in the midst of whom the true worship should be preserved. Abraham was its progenitor. This patriarch at first inhabited Chaldea; but he went to establish himself, by the command of God, in the land of Canaan. He lived there as a stranger, as well as Isaac, his son, and Jacob, his grandson. This last was the father of twelve children, who became the chiefs of the twelve tribes.

Joseph, one of the sons of Jacob, having been sold as a slave by his brethren, became prime-minister of the Pharaoh of lower Egypt. He invited thither his father's family and established it in the land of Goshen.

The posterity of Jacob dwelt in Egypt nearly two centuries, and so multiplied there that they gave umbrage to the Egyptians. Reduced to servitude by the latter, the Hebrews had groaned for a century under their tyranny, when God raised up Moses for their deliverance.

Moses, after having signalized the power of God in his own person by many prodigies, delivered his brethren from their bondage, and led them out of Egypt and over the Red sea, which they passed with dry feet. They wandered, under his guidance, during forty years, in the deserts of Arabia, and received from him a complete code of laws, to which they never added. Moses died in sight of the land that God had promised to his people.

Joshua, the successor of Moses, established the Hebrews in the land of Canaan, after having caused the walls of Jericho to fall down, and gained many victories.

What is said of the descendents of Noah?-Of Abraham ?-Isaac and Jacob?-Joseph?

What befel the posterity of Jacob in Egypt?
What is said of Moses and of the Hebrews under his guidance?

What is said of Joshua?

The Israelites were afterward governed by the judges.; this government, the forms of which are but little known, lasted three hundred years. The prophet Samuel was the last judge.

He caused Saul to be nominated king, by the command

of God.

To that prince succeeded *David*, surnamed the Prophet-king, and to David, Solomon, his son, celebrated for his wisdom and for the *temple* which he built at *Jerusalem*.

After the death of this prince the kingdom was divided. Ten tribes revolted against Rehoboam, the son of Solomon, and acknowledged Jeroboam, under the title of the King of Israel; the other kingdom took the name of the Kingdom of Judah.

The kingdom of Israel was destroyed by Salmanazar, king of Assyria, after a duration of 254 years. This prince reduced to captivity the ten tribes, and dispersed

them through the different parts of Asia.

The kingdom of Judah still subsisted 130 years; it was finally destroyed by Nebuchadnezzar II. That prince, for the last time, led into captivity at Babylon a part of the Jewish people, and in a second war got possession of Jerusalem. This captivity endured seventy years; the Hebrews were delivered from it by Cyrus; they then returned to Jerusalem and rebuilt the temple.

They after this governed themselves by their own laws; although subject to the Persians, the power was in the

hands of the high priests.

After their return how were they governed?

What is said of the Judges?—Samuel?—Saul?—David?—Solomon?—What schism took place under Rehoboam? What did Salmanazar do to the kingdom of Israel? What did Nebuchadnezzar do to that of Judah? How long did the Jewish captivity continue? Who released them from it? What did they do when released?

After Alexander the Great, they were by turns subject to the kings of Egypt and to those of Syria.

In the second century before J. C. the Asmonean or Machabean princes took the title of kings of Judea. Hircanus II, being attacked by his brother, called the Romans to his assistance.

Pompey, a Roman general, entered Judea, and rendered the Jews tributaries of the republic, while he left to them their form of government.

It was under the reign of Herod the Great that Jesus Christ was born, in the year 4963. The kingdom of Judea still existed for some time under the influence of the Romans; it was finally destroyed by Titus, (70 years after J. C.). The siege of Jerusalem, the capital, lasted seven months. The Jews revolted again under Adrian; that emperor, after having made a frightful slaughter among them, dispersed them (135 years after J. C.). They have not since formed a national body, and are scattered over the surface of the globe.

PHENICIANS.

In the neighborhood of the Israelites, along the Mediterranean, lived the Phenicians or Canaanites, a nation equally remarkable in history. Navigation and a very extended commerce gave them early, and for a long time, the superiority over other nations; they cultivated many arts with success, were versed in the sciences, and it was

What was their political state after Alexander?
In the second century before Christ?
What is said of Hircanus II?
What did Pompey do to the Jews?
What remarkable birth under Herod the Great?
What befel the Jews under Titus?—Under Adrian?
What has been heir condition since?
Where were the Phenicians located?
For what were t. ey remarkable?

from them, according to all appearances, that the art of

writing descended to us.

Their commerce was already flourishing in the time of Jacob; their manufactures of glass and purple are anterior to Moses; and Tyre presented, at the period of the foundation of Rome, the appearance of our great commercial cities.

The Phenicians built a palace for Solomon; as navigators and merchants, they made a great number of discoveries, of which vestiges are found in the narratives of Moses, Homer and the Argonautic bards. This people planted among the savages of Europe the first germs of the Asiatic sciences, and the primitive forms of those letters which we trace at the present day, are due to its inventive genius.

The Phenicians, situated between the Mediterranean and mount Libanus, inhabited a narrow strip of land which makes at present a part of Sourie; they were the remains of the Canaanitish tribes which the Hebrews had not driven out. Isolated upon a barren soil, the Phenicians travelled to a great distance in search of the resources which their native land refused them.

Commerce soon procured for them immense wealth; they multiplied their entrepots in the islands of Cyprus and Rhodes, in Greece, Sicily and Sardinia. They discovered Spain and built Cadiz. At the time when Herodotus wrote, their vessels went in search of tin beyond Great Britain, and of precious wood to North Frisia and

What useful art have we derived from them?
What was the ancient state of commerce and the arts among them?—What did they do towards early civilization?
Where was their primitive seat?

From what tribes did they originate?
Did they migrate far from their own country?
How did they increase their wealth?
Into what countries did they extend their commerce?

the north of Germany; their establishments extended over the whole western coast of Africa, and Carthage became the most powerful of their colonies.

The increase of the new empires of Assyria and Babylon presented a barrier to the maritime monopoly of which the Phenicians had possessed themselves. Salmanazar and Nebuchadnezzar prepared the way for their decline. Ochus, the king of Persia, ruined Sidon; and at a later period Alexander ruined Tyre, which was rebuilt, but which never recovered its maritime preponderance; finally Antigonus, one of Alexander's generals, reduced her to servitude, and the commerce of that city was extinguished with its liberty.

GREEKS IN GENERAL.

The Greeks called themselves autochones;* a great number of historians make them come from Phenicia and Egypt. These two traditions may be reconciled by the hypothesis of a primitive population of autochones, collected and civilized by foreign colonies. The most famous were those of Inachus at Argos, of Cecrops at Athens, and of Cadmus at Thebes.

A single kingdom existed before them; it was that of Sicyon; they founded new ones and created laws.

Which was the most powerful of their colonies?
What circumstance interfered with their maritime monopoly?
What monarchs prepared the way for their decline?
By whom were Sidon and Tyre respectively rained?
Who finally reduced Tyre to servitude?
What did the Greeks call themselves?
From what nations are they said to have been derived?
How may you reconcile the traditions as to their origin?
From what colonies were they chiefly descended?
What kingdom existed before their arrival?

[·] Autochenes, persons been upon the soil where they live.

It is to this epoch and the following one that the ages called heroic belong. Their history is found environed with darkness and fable; still certain important facts present themselves: at the head of these ranks the establishment of the four kingdoms of Sicyon, Athens, Argos, and Thebes, the deluges of Ogyges and Deucalion, the institution of the Olympic games, the expedition of the Argonauts, and the famous war of Troy.

Here the heroic ages end, and events become more certain. The Heraclides possess themselves of the Peloponessus; the kingdom of Sicyon terminates; numerous colonies people the islands of the Ægean sea, and the shores of Asia; Homer publishes his poems; Lycurgus gives laws to Sparta; Corinth creates the Prytanes, Lacedæmon the Ephori; Messenia maintains two wars against Sparta; finally Athens requests laws from Solon. VI century and the two following are the most splendid and prolific of Grecian history; the Persian wars raised Greece to the highest point of glory and prosperity; eloquence and the arts flourished at the same time; but luxury and effeminacy came in their train. The Peloponessian war weakened the Greeks by means of each other; meanwhile Epaminondas, Thrasybulus, Xenophon and Agesilaus, signalized themselves by prodigies of genius and valor; but the gold of Philip, and ere long the sword of Alexander, repressed the independence of Grocce; the Achaan league caused her to revive for an instant; but finally the Romans imposed their yoke upon her. Greece became a Roman

What is said of their early history?

What important facts present themselves during that period?

What memorable events follow the close of the heroic ages? What events distinguish the VI, VII and VIII centuries of Grecian history?

What Greek's distinguished themselves during this period?

By what was Grecian independence impaired

By what resuscitated for a time?

province, and the Greeks had no other superiority than that of eloquence and the arts.

ATHENIANS.

The Athenians called themselves autocthones; they were doubtless formed from a mixture of the Pelasgi, (regarded as the oldest inhabitants of Greece,) with the children of Hellen, the Ionians, who, driven from Achaia, took refuge in Attica, and were incorporated with the four tribes then existing there, and finally with the colony, which is thought to have been Egyptian, conducted thither by Cecrops.

Among the most celebrated kings after Cecrops, are: Theseus, who is regarded as the founder of the Athenian state, because he united under the same government the several districts which surrounded the city, and which were previously independent; Menestheus, who perished at the siege of Troy; Codrus, who, it is said, voluntarily

devoted himself to save his country.

After the death of *Codrus* the monarchy was abolished, and the state was governed by perpetual and hereditary archons; they were chosen in the family of Codrus, and had all the authority of kings, but they were liable to render an account. The first perpetual archon was Medon, the son of Codrus; the last, Alemaon.

In the VIII century, the time of the arconship was reduced to ten years, while it was preserved in the family of Codrus. In the VII century the archors were only

From whom were the Athenians derived ?

By whom was it finally suppressed!

What is said of Cecrops !-Of Theseus ?-Of Menestheus ?-Of Codrus ?

What was the civil constitution of Athens after the death of Codrus?—Who was the first and who the last of the Archons?

How was the Archonship modified in the VIII century?—
The VII?

annual; nine of them were appointed, each of whom had peculiar functions, and all the citizens were admissible to the office.

Soon the Athenians felt the need of giving themselves laws; Draco was the first legislator; but his laws being too severe, were not executed, and the state relapsed into anarchy.

New laws were requested from Solon (VI century). That sage lawgiver had the glory of re-establishing peace in Athens, and of preparing the way for the prosperity of his country.

The form of government which Solon established was preserved, with slight modifications, during the whole period of the independence of Athens. It was almost entirely democratic.

Meanwhile, from its earliest date, men sought to attack it; the ambitious Pisistratus possessed himself by stratagem of the sovereign power (VI century before J. C.); and, after having been several times overthrown, he succeeded at length in seizing the authority again, and bequeathed it to his sons Hipparchus and Hippias. The first was slain by Harmodius and Aristogiton (VI century); the second, having been driven out a little while after (510), retired among the Persians, and stirred up against his country that Median or Persian war which was to carry to the highest degree the military reputation of the Athenians. In 490 Darius, son of Hystaspes, king of Persia, fell upon Greece with a million of men: he was defeated by Miltiades on the plains of Marathon, in

Who was the first lawgiver of Athens?

What became of his system of legislation? What is said of Solon?—Of the constitution which he established?

What is said of Pisistratus? - Of Hipparchus and Hippias? -Of Harmodius and Aristogiton?

What foreign enemy did Hippias excite against his country? What is said of Darius and Miltiades?

480; Xerxes repassed the Hellespont with a more formidable army, possessed himself of Attica, and destroyed Athens; but Themistocles defeated him at Sulamis, and he who had caused himself to be addressed as king of kings, scarcely found a bark for the purpose of flying into his own dominions (V century).

After that epoch, Athens occupied the first rank in Greece; every kind of glory came at once to render her illustrious. In her bosom the greatest statesmen were seen to rise and succeed each other: Themistocles, by his superior ability, rebuilt the walls of Athens in spite of the Spartans, and extended her power by sea; Aristides, by his justice, commanded the confidence of all the Greeks; Cimon, son of Miltiades, shewed himself worthy of his father, and routed the last remains of the Persian armies; at the same time the republic sent out colonies on all sides, which increased her possessions and her commerce.

The splendid success of Athens, and the important services which she had rendered to the cause of the Greeks, soon secured to her the honor of the *supremacy*, which, hitherto, had belonged to the *Lacedamonians*.

Perioles succeeded Conon in the management of affairs (V century); he sustained himself during forty years at the head of the republic; augmented the power of the people, humbled that of the Arcopagus, and confirmed the authority of Athens over her allies; but that authority degenerating into tyranny, the Spartans, who more-

What is said of Xerxes and Themistocles?

What was the condition of Athens at the close of the Persian war?

How was she rendered illustrious at this period by Themistocles?—By Aristides?—By Cimon?—By her colonies?

Did Athens at this time acquire the supremacy in Greece?

What is said of Pericles?

Did Athens abuse her ascendancy?

To what did her tyranny provoke the Spartans?

over were jealous of the power of Athens, formed against her a league into which all the malcontents entered, stirred up enemies against her on all sides, and took part against her in all quarrels; finally, after many truces and many ruptures, that cruel war of the Peloponesius broke out, which lasted twenty seven years, and cut down the flower of Greece.

During this war, the government underwent an ephemeral revolution. Alcibiades having been exiled corrupted the Athenian army at Samos, caused the democracy to be everturned at Athens, substituted for the assemblies of the people an assembly of five thousand chosen citizens, and for the senate a supreme council of four hundred members, who exercised the most cruel despotism. This council was abolished after four months, and the former constitution with slight modifications re-established.

After the unfortunate issue of the *Peloponessian war*. Athens was despoiled of the supremacy, and an oligarchy of thirty chiefs was created, known by the name of the Thirty Tyrants; but the atrocity of their government only hastened their ruin. The Thirty were driven out by Thrasybulus (401), and the constitution of Solon established anew. Athens speedily raised herself from the abasement into which she had fallen.

Conon defeated the fleet of the Spartans, and restored to his country the superiority by sea: the rivalry of

In what disastrous war did the hostility of Sparta terminate.

What revolution was effected at Athens during the Peloponessian war?

Who was its author?—What befel the four hundreed? Was the ancient constitution of Athens re-established?

What befel Athens at the close of the Peloponessian war? What happened to the Thirty Tyrants?

What benefit to Athens from the administration of Thrasybulus?

What is said of Conon?

Sparta and Thebes enabled Athens still more to repair her losses; soon her cruel enemy was reduced to the necessity of imploring her assistance, and offering her the alternate command. But a new rival came to threaten the liberty of Athens and of all Greece. Philip was shrewd enough, in spite of the eloquence of Demosthenes and the vigorous opposition of Phocian, to strip the Athenians of many of their most powerful colonies; he beat them at Cheronea (338), and caused the command of all the Grecian forces to be decreed to himself.

Alexander the Great, his son, exercised over the Athenians and the Greeks in general a powerful ascendant. After his death, Athens was scarcely free; subject to the kings of Macedonia, taken and retaken many times, she breathed a moment under Demetrius Poliorcetes, but her independence was soon attacked on all sides. Besieged and taken by the general Sylla (I century), she remained thenceforward under the dominion of the Romans.

SPARTANS OR LACEDÆMONIANS.

The origin of the Spartans is referred to Lelex, who lived in the XVI century before J. C. (1516). Sparta, which he founded or embellished, was governed at first by kings, whose succession has nothing certain about it until Tyndarus. That prince is celebrated in the poetic history of his children, Castor, Pollux, Helen and Clytemnestra, whom he had by Leda. Jupiter, according to fable

What is said of the rivalry of Sparta and Thebes? What is said of Philip of Macedon at this juncture? What influence did Alexander exert in Greece? What was her condition after his death? Under whom did she partially recover her independence? By whom was it finally destroyed?

By whom was Sparta originally governed? What is said of Tyndarus?—Of his children?

was the father of Castor and Helen. Tyndarus had for successors Castor and Pollux; they left the throne to Menelaus, the husband of Helen, who was the occasion of the Trojan war.

Orestes, the son of Agamemnon, had claims upon Lacedamon by his mother Clytemnestra; he easily obtained the crown, which he left to Tisamenes and Penthilus, his sons; but the latter were constrained to cede to the Heraclidæ the kingdoms of Argos, Mycenæ and Lacedamon. These descendents of Hercules had at that time for their chief Aristomachus, whose son Aristodemus was put in possession of the kingdom of Lacedamon.

The two sons of Aristodemus, Eurysthenes and Procles, mounted the throne together in 1125; and divided be-

tween them the royal authority.

After this time the Lacedemonians were always governed by two kings, and the throne was occupied during three centuries (280) by the descendents of Eurysthenes and Procles.

The disturbances which were raised at Sparta on account of this double royalty threatened the State with an inevitable anarchy, when Lycurgus, of the royal family, was chosen to remedy so many evils. His wise laws had all the success which was expected from them. He diminished the authority of the kings, destroyed the passion for wealth, regulated the popular repasts, and the education of children; and when he beheld his laws in force he made the Spartans swear to observe them until his return from a voyage which he meditated. He departed, and

Who were his successors?

What is said of Lycurgus and his laws?

What is said of Menelaus?—of Orestes?—of Tissamenes and Penthilus?—of the Heraclidæ?—of the two sons of Aristodemus?—of the double royalty of Lacedæmon?—of the disturbances which it produced?

By what device did he seek to perpetuate his code?

suffered himself to die with hunger at Delphos, or as others say, in Crete.

The principal wars which the Spartans had to maintain were: first, against the Mcssenians, whom they reduced to slavery, after three bloody conflicts; second, against the Thebans, whose city they took, and from which they were afterwards driven; third, against the Athenians, their most formidable rivals.

At the epoch of the Persian war they allied themselves with the other Greeks to repulse Xerxes: the noble devotedness of their king, Leonidas, and of three hundred of their soldiers, at Thermophyla, covered them with honor; but jealous of the power of the Athenians, they declared war against them. Lysander, their general, took Athens and changed its government. Haughty Lacedamon was in her turn humbled by the republic of Thebes, and beheld herself obliged to renounce her conquests.

The Spartans entered into the Achean league, and submitted to Philopemon, who abolished the laws of Lycurgus. They afterward underwent the general fate of Greece, by falling under the Roman dominion. They were subjected to the power of the Turks in 1460, and form at the present day a part of Hellenia or New Greece. Their descendents are the Mainotes.

The ruins of ancient Sparta are found near the town of Mistra.

What were the principal wars of the Spartans against the Greeks?

How did they distinguish themselves during the Persian

To what measure were they lead by their jealousy of Athens?

What is said of Lysander?

By whom was Sparta humbled in her turn? Into what league did the Spartans enter?

What is said of Philopæmon?

Under whose dominion did the Spartans afterward fall?
Of what country does Sparta form a part at present?

CARTHAGINIANS.

The Carthaginians descended from a colony of Phenicians which Dido, a Tyrian princess, flying from the tyranny of Pygmalion, her brother, led into Africa (IX century). She built, upon the northern coast of that country, a city which she named Carthage (new city), with a citadel called Byrsa (hide or skin).

The government of the Carthaginians was republican, and combined three different authorities: that of the supreme magistrates, or suffetes, that of the senate, and that of the people. The Carthaginians became so powerful by their commerce that they commanded not only a considerable portion of northern Africa, but the greater part of the islands in the vicinity of that continent, such as Sicily, Sardinia, &c.

They had establishments in Spain and Italy, and their commerce extended into Gaul, and even into Great Britain.

Having become the rival of Rome, Carthage had to sustain three struggles, called the Punic (Carthaginian) wars.

In the first, which lasted twenty-four years, these two republics tested their strength; in the second, which lasted seventeen years, Rome beheld herself upon the brink of ruin by the victorious march of Hannibal, who vanquished the Romans on the banks of the Tessina, near the lake of Trebbia, near that of Thrasymene, and at Canna; but being obliged to return to Carthage, he was vanquished at Zama, (south of Carthage,) by Publius Scipio

From whom were the Carthaginians descended!

What is said of Dido?

What form of government was established at Carthage?

By what means did she become great?

Over what countries did she extend her commercial empire? What was the consequence of her rivalry with Rome? What is said of the first Punic war?—The second?—Ot

Hannibal?—By whom and where was Hannibal vanquished?

Africanus; in the third, which lasted nearly four years, Carthage was utterly destroyed, in the II century, (146,) by Scipio Æmilianus, Africanus II. The republic of Carthage then became a Roman province.

At the fall of the Roman empire, the Vandals, German nations who had invaded the south of Spain, founded in Africa a kingdom which was destroyed by Belisarius, the general of Justinian, emperor of the East (VI century

after J. C.).

The Arabs or Saracens got possession of the territory of ancient Carthage in the VII century, and different Arab dynasties reigned there. Finally, in the XVI century the Turks made themselves masters of it.

The actual government of this country, nominally tributary to the *Porte*, is in the hands of a hereditary Moorish prince, who bears the title of bey, and who gives no other proofs of his dependence than some presents of considerable value which he sends annually to the Grand Seignor: this is the regency of *Tunis*.

ROMANS.

Italy was peopled by Illyrian, Iberian, Celtic, German, and Asiatic colonies; some Greek colonies settled in the south of Italy, or Magna Grecia.

It was from a Trojan colony however that the Romans boasted of being descended. In the XIII century, Encas,

What was the issue of the third Punic war?

Under whose dominion did Carthage pass at the fall of the Roman empire? By whom and when was the kingdom of the Vandals in

Africa destroyed?

What is said of the Saracen dominion there?—Of the Turk-

ish?-What is said of the present government?

By whom was Italy first peopled?

From whom did the Romans boast of being descended? What is reported of Eneas?

flying from the conflagration of Troy, arrived in Latium. After the death of king Latinus, whose daughter he married, he reigned over the Latins and the Trojans blended into a single people, and perished in a war against the Rutuli and the Etrusci.

Ascanius or Iulus, the son and successor of Æneas, founded the city of Alba and reigned over Latium. The names of his successors are scarcely known until about the commencement of the VIII century before J. C., when the king of Latium, Numitor, was dethroned by his brother Amulius. The vestal Rhca Sylvia, daughter of Numitor, became the mother of Romulus and Remus.

Fable has taken possession of the history of these twins, who re-established their grandfather on the throne. They set about building certain cabins near the Tiber. This is the commencement of *Rome* and of her history.

The duration of the Roman power includes about twelve centuries, from the foundation of Rome by Romulus (753), to the destruction of the empire of the west, under Romulus Augustulus (476), by Odoacer, king of the Heruli.

We may divide this immense interval into three great epochs, viz: first, the kings; secondly, the republic; thirdly, the empire.

ROME UNDER THE KINGS.

(240 years .- Two centuries and about a half.)

Seven kings governed Rome, and all are remarkable by their personal qualities, the importance of their insti-

What is reported of Ascanius?—Of Numitor and Amulius? Of Rhea Sylvia?—Of Romulus and Remus?

Are these accounts of the origin of Rome for the most part fabulous?—How long did the Roman power endure?

How may this long period be divided? How long was Rome under the kings?

tutions and the great events of which they were either the authors or witnesses.

First, Romulus built Rome and increased the number of the citizens by the union with them of a part of the Sabines; he created civil laws, established a constitution which seven centuries afterward still subsisted in great measure, and laid a foundation for the universal dominion of the Romans (VIII century).

Secondly, Numa Pompilius instituted the religion of Rome and its worship; he dedicated the temple of Janus, divided the year into months, and published a code of very wise laws (VIII and VII centuries).

Thirdly, Tullus Hostilius gained a victory over the Albans, destroyed Alba, after the combat of the Horatii and the Curiatii, and laid the foundation for the dominion of Rome over Latium (VIII century).

Fourthly, Ancus Martius extended the dominion of Rome as far as the sea, and established the port of Ostium, which shows that already Rome was giving herself to navigation, if at the same time she had not for her object piracy rather than commerce (VII century).

Fifthly, Tarquin the Elder contracted an alliance with the Etruscans, and placed Rome, which he embellished, in a condition, by this means, to undertake some maritime

enterprise (VII and VI centuries).

Sixthly, Servius Tullius placed Rome at the head of the Latin league, which he consolidated by instituting a community of sacrifices: in making a new division of the people, founded upon property, he created the important institutions of the census and the comitia. This king, the most remarkable of them all, founded the edifice of the republic (VI century).

What is said of them in general?

What was accomplished by Romulus?
What was accomplished by Numa Pompilius?—By Tullus Hostilius?—Ancus Martius?—Tarquin the Elder?—Servius Tullius?

Seventhly, Tarquin the Proud possessed himself of the government by violence; he sought to strengthen himself upon the throne by a closer alliance with the Volsci and the Latins. But by this means, as well as by his tyranny, he rendered the plebeians and the patricians unfavorably disposed towards him. Still, his expulsion and the reform of the constitution, which was its sequel, were the work of the ambition of the senators; he was banished, and the royalty abolished, (509,) (VI century).

ROME UNDER THE REPUBLIC.

(500 Years .- Five Centuries.)

FROM THE TIME OF THE CONSULS.

After the abolition of royalty, the State was constituted a republic, and two temporary magistrates called consuls were chosen every year. The first were Junius Brutus and Collatinus.

To preserve her independence, there public had to sustain, from the commencement, wars against *Porsenna*, king of *Etruria* and the sons of *Tarquia*; but the heroism of *Cocles*, of *Scavola*, of *Clelia*, and the courageous resistance of the Romans, caused her to triumph (VI century).

This repose was followed by intestine dissensions caused by the reciprocal hatred of the plebeians and the patricians.

What was accomplished by Tarquin the Proud?
How long did Rome continue under the Republic?
What was the consulship?—Who were the first consuls?
Against whom did the Republic maintain wars of independence?

By what means was her triumph secured? By what was that triumph succeeded?

To what did the internal dissensions of Rome give rise?

These rendered necessary the establishment of the dictatorship, 498 years before Jesus Christ. Titus Lartius was the first dictator (only eleven years after the fall of the kings).

These fatal struggles did not prevent the Romans from making war with advantage upon neighboring nations.

The Latins were conquered at Regillus. It was there that Titus and Sextus perished, the sons of Tarquin the Proud, who himself died at Cumas a short time after (495).

New troubles arose at Rome; the plebeians retired to the Mons Sacer, three miles from the city, and did not re enter it until the patricians had promised them the abolition of debts and the creation of an advocate of the people. The popular tribunes were created (495). The Volsci were beaten at Corioli by Marcius, who took the name of Coriolanus (492). This young patrician, of a haughty and intractable character, was soon after condemned to perpetual banishment, for having endeavored to annul the conventions of Mons Sacer; he departed, and returned at the head of the Volsci, laid siege to Rome, repelled the prayers of the senators, and gave way only to the tears of his mother Veturia.

The consul Spurius Cussius renewed the disturbances of Rome by proposing the agrarian law; he was accused of aspiring to royalty; and put to death (483).

War was declared with the Equi, the Volsci and the Veii. These last cut in pieces the three hundred and six

Who was the first dictator?

Did the Romans wage successful war with their neighbors?

What is said of the war with the Latins?—Of Tarquin and his sons?

What were the results of the new disturbances? When were the popular tribunes created? Where, and by whom, were the Volsci defeated? What is said of Coriolanus?—Of Veturia? What is said of Spurius Cassius? In what wars was the Republic next engaged? What is said of the Veii?

Fabii near the river Cremera, at the same time that three hundred Spartans were vanquished and massacred at Thermopylæ by the Persians (480).

The people next became indignant at the abuses introduced by the consuls; a tribune, Terentius Arsa, proposed a law which tended to fix the jurisprudence: this was the lex Terentia. It excited ten years of disturbance, in the midst of which a rich Sabine, Herdonius, got possession of the capitol. The people marched against him. Quintus Cincinnatus, taken from his plough, was made consul and dictator; he defeated the Equi, and returned to resume his agriculture. The Terentian law was finally consented to by the grandees, and the decemvirate established (451). It was then that the republic changed its form.

FROM THE TIME OF THE DECEMVIRS.

The law of the twelve tables was promulgated by ten magistrates named decenvirs, but the abuse which they made of their power by prolonging it during three years, and by exercising an odious tyranny, and finally the martyrdom of the young Virginia, persecuted by the decenvir Appius Claudius, and sacrificed on the altar of freedom by the hand of her father, occasioned their fall and the abolition of their office (449).

Long and painful wars against different nations of Latium filled the entire following epoch, without any decided result, though the advantage still remained to the Romans.

What next provoked the Roman populace?
What remedy was proposed for their injuries?
What was the immediate effect of this proposal?
What is said of Herdonius?—Of Quintus Cincinnatus?
What was the issue of the Lex Terentia?
When was the decemvirate established?
What is said of its benefits, abuse and overthrow?

By what was the following epoch filled?

FROM THE CAPTURE OF ROME BY THE CAULS.

But the invasion of Brennus, chief of the Gauls (390) placed them within a hairs breadth of ruin. Rome, taken and burnt, was saved only by the courage of Camillus, who was at that time exiled. Fifty-two years after this period (338), the Latin nations definitively submitted to the Republic.

Then the Romans turned their arms against the Samnites (323), and the Etruscans (311). The former, who had caused the Romans to pass under the yoke at Furce Caudina, were subdued in the year 272 before Jesus Christ. Crotona, Locres, Brindesia, Tarentum, and a part of Lucania and Bruttium speedily underwent the same fate, notwithstanding the efforts of Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, whom the inhabitants of these districts had called to their aid.

Successes equally great crowned the Roman arms to the north of the Republic, and about the year 264 before Jesus Christ, she found herself nearly mistress of the whole of Italy.

FROM THE TIME OF THE PUNIC WARS.

At this epoch the wars against the Carthaginians commenced. They are designated under the name of the Punic wars: there were three of them.

The first, (264-240) gave the Romans Sicily; the se-

When did the Gauls invade Rome ?

Who delivered the city from ruin?

How long after did the submission of the Latins take place? Against whom did Rome next direct her arms?

When were the Sampites subdued?

What other cities shared the same fate?

About what period was the conquest of Italy completed ?

When did the Punic wars commence ?

What island did the first of these wars give the Romans?-The second?

cond (218-201) Spain. This last is celebrated by the rivalry of Publius Scipio, Africanus I, and Hannibal, general of the Carthaginians; it fixed the attention of Europe. In the third (149-145), the Romans took possession of Africa: Carthage was destroyed. During the two latter wars, and in the intervals which they left between them, the four wars of Macedonia, against Philip and Perseus, and the war of Syria, (191-188) took place; and others less important, which were terminated by the submission of the provinces of Asia (188), Istria (177), Macedonia (168), and Dalmatia (155).

The capture of Thebes and Corinth decided the reduction of Greece into a Roman province, under the name of

Achaia (146).

Numantia, for a moment in revolt (141-133), succumbed with the rest of Spain. The conquest of the whole world became less and less doubtful. Numerous and celebrated wars against foreigners, among others those of Jugurtha (119-106), of the Sicilian slaves (104-102), of the Cimbri and the Teutones 102-101), of the Marsi (91-89), of Mithridates, king of Pontus (88-64), of Sertorius (85-72), of the Gauls (59-49), and the Parthians (54), signalized the following century: but the internal struggles of Rome, and the wars of citizen with citizen, rendered it still more sadly celebrated.

The two attempts of the *Gracchi* (133-123) to restore to the people rights usurped by the patricians, were the prelude to these commotions. Afterward, *Marius* and

By what was this last distinguished?

What country did the third secure to Rome?

What other wars did she carry on during her two latter conflicts with Carthage?

What resulted from her capture of Thebes and Corinth?

How did the revolt of Numantia terminate?

By what foreign wars was the following century signalized? What interior agitations gave it a sad celebrity?

What was the prelude to these commotions?

Sylla (88-82), Casar and Pompey, the latter of whom was conquered at Pharsalia (48), the triumvirs and Brutus (42), Octavius and Sextus Pompey (36), and finally Octarius and Anthony (21), disputed with each other for the mighty power of Rome, on fields of battle covered with the blood of the Romans. Two proscriptions, that of Bylla (84) and that of the triumvirs (45), still further added to so many horrors. At length these struggles ceased; Rome, mistress of the world, acknowledged the power of a single master, and the imperial monarchy began after the victory of Octavius Augustus, at Actium, over Mark Anthony, and Cleopatra, queen of Egypt, (31 years before Jesus Christ).

ROME UNDER THE EMPERORS.

(Five centuries.)

The history of this period comprehends five ages. In the first, which we call the age of the Casars, Rome, after having tasted the most perfect calm and prosperity under Augustus, who protected and patronised letters, underwent successively the tyranny of the cruel Tiberius, the senseless Caligula, the imbecile Claudius, and the atrovious Nero; and she breathed an instant under Vespasian and Titus, only to fall into the hands of Domitian, who united in himself all that was odious in his predecessors.

The second century, or age of the Antonines, was as happy for the state as the first was unfortunate. The

When did the imperial monarchy of Rome begin?

How long was she under the emperors?
By what emperors is the age of the Casars distinguished? What was the state of Rome under these emperors respectively?-What is said of the age of the Antonines?

What persons disputed successively for the ascendant in Rome ?-What two events further enhanced these horrors?

senate had nominated to the empire a man of probity, Nerva, (from 96 to 98,) to succeed whom four men, not less virtuous, presented themselves. Little anxious to leave the supreme power to a son or a nephew, Nerva consulted only the interest of the state, and after having reigned two years, he adopted Trajan, (98) by origin a Spaniard, and the first foreigner who reached the throne of Rome. Trajan extended, by conquests in Dacia and Asia, the bounds of the empire. Adrian, (117) with military talents, showed himself pacific and a zealous friend of letters and the fine arts; he built a wall in the north of Britain against the Caledonians; he enlarged new Carthage and rebuilt Jerusalem. Under him the Jews revolted, were defeated and finally dispersed (135). Antoninus, (138) the most virtuous of monarchs; his reign was the most prosperous period of the empire. Murcus Aurelius, (168) surnamed the philosopher; he associated with himself Lucius Verus, a prodigal and dissipated young man, to whom, notwithstanding, he gave his daughter in marriage. It was under this excellent prince that the bravery and the prodigies of the Christian Legion, called the thundering, are said to have taken place, in the war against the Marcomanni and their allies. Marcus Aurelius succeeded in securing the frontiers of the empire along the Danube; but he was the first who permitted the barbarians to settle in the interior, and took them into the pay of the state; he bequeathed the purple to his son, the cowardly and cruel Commodus, (180) under whom a horrible tyranny filled the empire with blood. A murder delivered the Romans from this monster, but left the government without a guide.

Here commences the third century, the age of military

What is said of Nerva?—Trajan?—Adrian?—Antoninus?
—Marcus Aurelius?—Commodus?
How may the third century be characterized?

anarchy. Pertinax, (193) after a three months' reign, died by the hand of the soldiery. The crown was set up at auction. Didius Julianus ventured to purchase it. Pescenninus Niger, Septimius Severus and Albinus disputed it with him. The first was proclaimed emperor in Syria, the second in Illyria, and the third in Britain (197).

Septimius Severus, (197-211) who remained sole master of the empire, raised it again by a very firm reign, made war with the Parthians and the Britains, and reestablished the wall of Adrian. He died at York; but the cruel Caracalla, (211) his son, shook the government anew. He caused his brother Geta to be assassinated in the arms of his mother, desolated the provinces which he traversed, and made a fearful massacre of the people of Alexandria. Macrinus, the prætorian præfect, assassinated him.

After the death of Caracalla the soldiers were once more masters of the empire. They elected successively Macrinus, who reigned only a year, (217) Heliogabalus, (218) a cruel and debauched prince; Alexander Severus, one of the best rulers and greatest emperors of Rome, (222-235) who reigned many years, but whose administration could not eradicate the evils with which the empire was infected.

At his death anarchy reappeared, more powerful than ever. Twenty-five princes and fifty usurpers invaded and for a moment occupied the throne. Only

What is said of Pertinax !—Of Didius Julianus !—Of Pescenninus Niger ?—Septimius Severus and Albinus ?—Of Caracalla ?

Who were masters of the empire after the death of the latter?--Whom did they successively elect to the empire?

How long did Macrinus reign?

What was the character of Heliogabalus ?

What is said of Alexander Severus? What happened again at his death?

three among them, Claudius II, Aurelian and Diocletian deserve mention. Claudius II, (268 270) a good general, gained important victories over the Goths; he was surnamed the Gothic.

Aurelian, (270-275) a great warrior, subdued the princes of the East, after the defeat of Zenobia, queen of Palmyra; he reduced under his obedience all the countries of the West, which, since Gallienus, (259) had possessed independent masters. He died by assassination.

The death of Aurelian was followed by an interregnum of six months; the senate disposed of the throne in favor of Probus (276). That emperor, who was always at war with the Germans, whom he repulsed, was not wanting in a certain acquaintance with the arts of peace; he built many cities, which he peopled with prisoners of war, and made his soldiers plant vineyards upon the hills near the Rhine.

Diocletian (284); at his accession the partitions of the empire began. That prince suspended during a certain time the evils of the empire, but he abdicated the government and retired to Salona.

The fourth century, or age of Constantine, is celebrated: first, for the triumph of Christianity, which was exalted to the throne in the person of Constantine (312); secondly, for the translation of the empire to Byzantium, which took the name of Constantineple; thirdly, for the victories and the reign of Julian the Apostate, (360) the last prince of the race of Constantine, and the most able of them all; he abjured the Christian religion and made vain efforts to restore Paganism: he carried war into Persia, and died of a wound which he received while fighting (363);

What is said of Claudius II?—Of Aurelian? What is said of Probus?—Of Diocletian? What may the fourth age be called? By what personages and events is it distinguished?

fourthly, for the final division of the empire (364) between Valens and Valentinian. The great Theodosius reunited, in 394, the Roman world, but at his death he consummated the separation of the two empires, which he divided between his two sons: Arcadius reigned in the East, Honorius in the West (395).

Then the perpetual invasions of the barbarians were seen to multiply, who notwithstanding did not yet estab-

lish themselves in the heart of the empire.

In the fifth century, or age of invasions, the Roman legions abandoned Britain and Gaul to the Angles, the Franks and the Burgundians, Spain to the Alani, the Suevi and the Visigotks, Africa to the Vandals, and the north of Italy to all the barbarians. The imperial purple, usurped, bestowed and purchased by turns, covered phantoms of princes, and was degraded more and more. The Sueve Riciner, who did not condescend to assume it, clothed with it in succession Severus and Anthemius; Augustulus, who succeeded him, (475) was, in the following year, driven from the throne by Odoacer, king of the Heruli, who refused the empire, and substituted for the title of emperor of the Romans that of king of Italy. There were no more Romans except at Constantinople, where by slow degrees they took the name of Greeks, and completely forgot from whom they were descended (476). On the ruins of the western empire all the modern states rose in succession

By what was the fifth age of the empire distinguished?
What barbarous tribes took possession of Britian and Grecce?

Of Spain?—Of Africa?—Of the north of Italy?
How was the imperial purple disposed of?
What was the character of those who received it?

What is said of Ricimer and Odoacer?—Of Severus, Anthemius and Augustulus?

What is said of the Roman degeneracy at this time? What states sprung from the ruins of the empire?

PERSIANS.

Persia is called, in holy scripture, the country of Elam, from the name of a son of Shem. The first known king of this country is Chedorlaomer, who came, with four kings, his allies, to invade Palestine, to take and pillage Sodom, and to carry off Lot a prisoner; but Persia did not emerge from obscurity until after the end of the first Assyrian empire.

When Arbaces had enfranchised the Medes, those nations gave themselves laws, divided themselves into tribes and established judges for such disputes as might arise. Dejoces was the first king whom they elected. He devoted

himself principally to civilizing his subjects.

To Dejoces, succeeded, without leaving any great memorial: Phraortes, Cyaxares I, Astyages and Cyaxares II,

(Darius the Mede).

Cyaxeres II nominated for general of his army Cyrus, the son of Mandane, his sister, and of Cambyses, king of Persia, a subject of the Median empire. Cyrus took Crasus, king of Lydia, at the battle of Thymbraa, near Sardis, he subdued the other allies of Neriglissor, king of Babylon, marched against that city, and got possession of it after a long siege. Having turned the waters of the Euphrates, he penetrated, by a channel of that river, to the bosom of the city, where Belshazzer, the successor of Neriglissor, was celebrating a great feast. That prince

What is the scripture name of Persia?
Who was the first king of Persia?
When did the Persiaus emerge from obscurity?
What did the Medes do after their enfranchisement?
Who was the first elective monarch?
What is said of him?
Who were his successors until Cyaxares II?
Whom did Cyaxares nominate for his general?
Whom did Cyrus capture at the battle of Thymbræa?
By what means did he get possession of Babylon?
What was the fate of Belshazzer?

was slain with all the grandees of his court, whom he had assembled at a magnificent repast.

Some time afterward Cyaxeres and Cambyses died; Cyrus succeeded them in 556, and uniting the kingdom of the Medes to that of the Persians, he founded the greatest em-

pire which until then had existed in the world.

This great conqueror published, in 536 before J. C., the famous decree in favor of the Jews, who had been in captivity for seventy years, and whom he permitted to rcturn to Jerusalem. Pursuing his conquests afterwards, he established for the bounds of his empire, to the east the RIVER Indus, to the north the Caspian sea and the Euxine, to the west the Egean sea, to the south Ethiopia and the Arabian gulf. According to Herodotus, he was slain in a battle against Tomyris, queen of the Scythians or Massagetæs, who plunged the head of Cyrus into a vessel full of blood: Fill yourself with it, SAID SHE, since you have always thirsted for it.

Cambyses succeeded Cyrus, his father (from 520 to 522). He made the conquest of Egypt, and even attempted to subdue Ethiopia. He was unfortunately too celebrated for his cruelty and tyranny, and did not long survive his brother Smerdis, whom he had put to death. One of the magi passed himself off for that unfortunate prince, and succeeded in reigning seven months under the name of Smerdis; but the imposture was discovered, and the unworthy priest was massacred by the principal lords who had revolted against him. One of them, Darius, the son of Hystaspes, (from 321 to 485,) possessed himself of the

Whom did Cyrus succeed in 556?

What famous decree did he publish in 536 before C.?

What bounds did Cyrus fix to his empire?

What account of his death is given by Herodotus? What is said of Cambyses?—Of Smerdis?—Of the false

How did Darius get possession of the kingdom?

kingdom, which he owed, it is said, to the whinnowing of his horse. He showed some warlike virtues, but his ambition cost Persia a great deal of blood. He caused himself to be called the best, and the best proportioned, of all wen.

He passed the Thracian Dosphorus in order to march against the Scythians of Europe; he advanced beyond the Panube without being able to reach them, and lost a great many men.

It was this *Darius* who carried the first Persian war into *Greece*, designing at the outset to subdue a nation which appeared to him too proud, and of whom, still, he had heard no mention made except by a Greek physician called *Democedes*, and afterward to avenge *Hippias* the tyrant of Athens, who had come to request succor of him. This is the first *Median* or *Persian* war.

Darius sent into Greece his son-in-law, Mardonius, at the head of a formidable army. Miltiades defeated him with ten thousand men at Marathon, in the year 490. Darius died a little while after.

[As the history of the Persians is entirely connected with that of the Greeks after the reign of Darius, we shall only indicate here the most memorable events connected with it.]

To Durius succeeded Xerxes I (485-472), his son, who, thinking he could repair the affront which the Persian arms had experienced in Greece, directed his troops towards that country. (This was the second Medica war). Then took place, in 480, the battle of Thermepylae, the naval combat near Artemisia, and the battle of Sale-

What was his character?

Did he succeed in his invasion of Scythia?

What induced him to invade Greece?

What success did Mardonius meet with?

With what history is that of Persia, after Darius, blended?

Who succeeded Darius?

What are the leading events of the second Median war?

mis; and finally, a year after, the combats of Plataa and Mycale. Artabanus, captain of the guards of Xerxes, assassinated him and caused Artaxerxes Longimanus to ascend the throne (465-424), under whom the war between the Greeks and Persians ended, by the defeat of the Persian fleet near the river Eurymedon: Cimon, son of Miltiades, commanded the Greeks. It was in reply to the request of this prince that the celebrated Hippocrates refused to go into Persia notwithstanding the most splendid promises, because the Greeks, afflicted by the pestilence, had need of his care and talents. It was, moreover, at the court of Artaxerxes Longimanus that Themistocles took refuge.

The history of Persia presents no more than two celebrated reigns, that of Artaxerxes Mnemon, under whom the famous retreat of the ten thousand took place, in 401, and the treaty of Antalcidas (787); and that of Darius III, Codomanus, who punished the assassin of his predecessors, the cruel Egyptian Bagoas (336-330).

Persia might possibly have enjoyed under this prince the delights of a dearly bought peace, if the great Alexander had not proposed to himself the conquest of the world.

Darius, attacked by the Macedonian hero, lost successively the battles of the Granicus, the Issus and Arbela.

Having no longer with him anything but a few troops without courage, Darius was retiring towards Parthia, when Bessus, the commander of Bactriana, seized his person and chained him in a chariot. The arrival of Alex-

What are the only celebrated reigns in the history of Persia ?-What is said of Persia under Codomanus?

What battles did he lose when fighting with Alexander? What became of him after his defeat?

What is said of Artabanus ?- Of Artaxerxes Longimanus? What is said of Cimon ?-Of Hippocrates ?-Of Themistocles?

ander determined Bessus to fly, and the conqueror received the last sighs of the king of the Persians.

With Darius Codomanus ended the Persian monarchy, which had lasted 205 years.

MACEDONIANS.

The origin of the nations of Macedonia, like that of most of the ancient populations, is covered with darkness. It is uscless to seek to clear up this obscurity; it suffices to know that the ancestors of those who became by slow degrees the masters of all Greece and the whole of Asia, were a colony of Argives who, under the conduct of Caranus, originally of Argos, and a descendant of Hercules, came to settle in Macedonia in 867.

The Macedonians had always been considered brave and courageous; but it was only after the reign of Philip, the father of Alexander the Great, that war became with them a national employment. Before that time Macedonia was a hereditary kingdom, but of so little consideration that Demosthenes said: "It is a vile corner of the world, which has not produced so much as a good slave."

The many kings who reigned after Caranus, had not been able to make this kingdom emerge from its obscurity. Intestine dissensions had, on the contrary, rendered it less and less fitted to distinguish itself, when Perdiceas, one of its kings, deceased, leaving for a successor his son Amyntas, still an infant. Macedonia then became the theatre of domestic troubles; every body pretended to the throne; Pausanius and Argæus took up arms against each other; enemies, profiting by these divisions, pene-

What was the origin of the Macedonians?

What is said of Macedonia before and after the reign of Philip?

What dissensions broke out during the minority of Amyn-

trated into the heart of the state; but all disorder ceased on the arrival of Philip, son of Amuntas II and of the queen Eurydice. Having been sent as an hostage to Thebes, he was at once the friend and pupil of Pelopidas, of Polymnis, the father of Epaminondas, and of Epaminondas himself, with whom he learned the great art of governing men and conducting affairs. Philip, at the news of the death of Perdiccas, escaped from Thebes, arrived in Macedonia, caused himself to be declared the tutor of his nephew, and finally got possession of the throne of Macedonia, at the age of only twenty-four years, but combining in himself, though young, all the qualities of a great politician. The Athenians, meanwhile, in the midst of disorder and effeminacy, did not behold without fear the accession of Philip; they immediately embraced the party of Argaus. The new king of Macedonia marched against his rival, and concluded with the Athenians a delusive peace; for, a short time after, he possessed himself of Amphipolis, although that city was an Athenian colony; and, to take from his former masters all pretext for complaining, he declared the city free. Two principal means were employed by this monarch, the greatest politician of his age, for accomplishing his designs. The first was to provide himself with organs of intelligence in all the republics of Greece, and to corrupt, with the treasures of Macedonia, the principal magistrates and the best orators of that country; the second, to cause himself to be charged by the Amphictyons with the care of avenging the injuries done to the temple of Delphos by the Phocians, whom he beat,

What was his character?

How did Philip get possession of the throne?

What effect did his accession produce on the Athenians? What delusive policy did Philip practice towards them? What means did he employ for effecting his designs? Were they effectual?

and whose place he took in the council. This victory put an end to the sacred war, which had lasted ten years, and opened to *Philip* the entrance into Greece, whose

conquest he projected.

What chiefly arrested the progress of this monarch was the orators, who exerted a powerful influence over the Athenians. He had recourse to his wealth in order to buy up their eloquence. Æschines, Demades, and some others, were not able to resist this means of seduction; Phocion, that illustrious general whom Demosthenes called the aze of his discourses, and who had conquered Philip at the island of Eubaa, was incorruptible: his views, however, were pacific, and consequently he gave the king of Macedonia little uneasiness. But the greatest enemy of that prince, he who had the skill to detect his policy, and who mounted the tribune only to preserve the Athenians from his snares, was this same Demosthenes, that illustrious orator, whose philippies are a model of eloquence and patriotism. In vain did Philip cover all his projects with a mysterious veil; in vain did he purchase by means of money the responses of the Delphian priestess; Demosthenes divined the whole procedure, thwarted all his measures, and told the Athenians that Pythia philipized. Still the policy of Philip came out of this struggle victorious. That prince made himself master of Methone and Olynthus, afterward re-entered into Greece, under pretence of assisting at the diet of the Amphictyons, passed Thermopylæ, fell suddenly upon Elathaa, which he took, and filled all Greece with asto-

What is said of Phocion?

What victories did he achieve in Greece ?

What were the consequences of his victory over the Phocians?—How did he deal with the Athenian orators?

Who was the most formidable enemy of Philip? Did Demosthenes detect and expose his schemes? Was the policy of Philip still successful?

nishment and terror. Finally, continuing his victorious march, he defeated the Athenians at Cheronæa (338). He owed the success of that battle to the valor of his son Alexander, then nineteen years of age, and to the excellence of that Macedonian phalanx so vaunted in history.

This victory caused Philip so much joy, that he transported himself to the place of combat, insulting the dead and the prisoners, and setting to music the first words of a decree which Demosthenes had caused to be passed against him. It is said that the orator, Demades, indignant at this conduct, ventured to say to that prince: "Fortune has given you the part of Agamemnon, and you play that of The.vites." Philip made peace with the Athenians and went to carry on, in company with them, the war in Asia, when Pausanias, a young Macedonian, (356,) assassinated him in the games which were celebrated in honor of the marriage of Cleopatra, the king's daughter, with Alexander, king of Epirus, brother of Olympias, whom Philip had repudiated in order to espouse Cleopatra, niece of Attalus, one of the principal officers of his army.

As soon as the Athenians learnt the death of that prince, they delivered themselves up to the most immoderate joy, and Demosthenes crowned himself with a garland, although his daughter had just died. Alexander, the son and successor of Philip, was destined to make them pay dearly for this conduct, unworthy of a people who aspired to the honor of being regarded as the most polished on the earth.

The death of Philip seemed to have aroused every

To what was he indebted for his success at Cheronæa? How did he conduct himself on the field of victory? How did Demades reprove him? Did Philip make peace with the Athenians? When and by whom was he assassinated? How did the tidings of his death affect the Athenians?

passion of the Greeks; all had trembled before that prince, all united against his successor, who was thought to be unfit to govern. Demosthenes reanimated the hopes of the Athenians; the cities tributary to Macedonia endeavored to shake off their yoke; Amyntas and Attalus aspired to the crown; in fine, the kingdom, threatened by factions within and by formidable neighbors without, demanded a man consummate in the art of governing. Alexander, whom we have already seen at the battle of Cheronæa, presented himself as a successor to Philip, his father; only twenty-one years of age, he united already to great natural endowments an excellent education. The desire of surpassing the exploits of his father, and the lessons of the celebrated Aristotle, would have made of him an accomplished monarch, if he had not suffered himself to be carried away by two passions terrible in a prince, who ought, above all, to consult the interest of his people: an unmeasured ambition and the desire of glory (336).

Alexander did not listen to the timid counsels of his friends, who wished to induce him to abandon Greece; he found in his greatness of soul and in his courage the means of pacifying his dominions. He caused Amyntas to be slain, and reduced by the force of his arms the barbarous nations which had revolted from the Macedonian government. The eloquence of Demosthenes had caused the Thebans to rebel, and the Athenians had entered into the league; Alexander marched by long journeys towards Greece, penetrated into it, laid siege to Thebes, carried it

How were they disposed towards his successor?

What course was pursued by Demosthenes?—By Amyntas and Attalus?

What was the state of Macedonia at this time? What was the character of Alexander?

Did he regard the timid counsels of his friends?

What did he do to Amyntas?—To his barbarian enemies?—To the Thebans?—The Athenians?

by assault, delivered it to pillage, and utterly consumed it with fire. Greece, trembling and astonished, sent ambassadors to congratulate the Macedonian prince, who demanded that ten orators should be delivered up to him, among whom was Demosthenes; but the Athenians succeeded in bending him from his purpose, and he contented himself with the exile of Charidemus, a distinguished general, who went to seek an asylum at the court of the king of Persia.

Greece pacified, Alexander was no longer occupied, except with the task of carrying on the war against the Persians; for this end, he convoked at Corinth all the Grecian states, and caused himself to be appointed generalissimo of the army. The Lacedæmonians alone refused to furnish him troops. On returning into his own dominious he regulated the interior of his kingdom, and ap-

pointed Antipater governor in his absence.

It is pretended, that while he meditated at Dium the plan of the expedition which he was about to make, he saw in a dream an old man full of majesty, in the dress of a high priest, who invited him to pass over into Asia, promising him the Persian empire (334). Forthwith, Alexander crossed the Hellespont at the head of a well disciplined army; he landed in Asia, offered sacifice on the tomb of Achilles, and defeated, at the banks of the Granicus, the Persians led by Memnon, lieutenant of Darius. This first success opened to him the gates of Sardis, Miletus, Halicarnassus, the kingdom of Pontus,

Who opposed the measure?

What enterprise engaged him after the pacification of Greece?

What preliminary did he adopt in this behalf?

What did he do on his return to Macedonia?

What is reported of his vision at Dium?
What effect had this vision upon him?

Whom did he defeat on the Granicus?

What was the consequence of his success there?

and in fine, of all the cities of Phrygia. After having cut at Gordium the gordian knot,* and subdued the barbarous nations on the frontiers of Lycia, he permitted the soldiers who were newly married to remain and pass the winter in Macedonia. In the following campaign he subdued Galatia, Paphlagonia, Cappadocia, and at last Cilicia, where he was arrested by a malady with which he was attacked from having bathed in the Cydnus. Recovered from this indisposition, he marched against Darius and defeated him near the city of Issus. He made himself master of his camp, his treasures, and even his family (333).

Alexander obtained command of the sea, by possessing himself of Tyre after a siege of seven months; he subdued Egypt without a battle, and founded Alexandria.

Finally, the desire of glory on one hand, and the necessity of defence on the other, brought the competitors together a third time. Darius was entirely defeated in the plains of Gangamella, near Arbela (331). The king of Persia in his flight having been betrayed by his own party, was put in chains and treated with indignity by Bessus, one of his generals, who assassinated him at the moment when Alexander was coming to meet him. The hero received his last sigh (330).

What did he do at Gordium? - On the borders of Lycia? What permission did he give his newly married soldiers? What conquests did he make in the following campaign?

What befel him at Cilicia?

What did he do after his recovery?

How did he succeed against Tyre and Egypt?

What city did he found in the latter country?
What motives arrayed Alexander and Darius against each other again ?- What was the result?-And the fate of Darius?

^{*} Gordius was a king of Phrygia. The knot which tied the yoke to the draught-tree of his chariot, was made in such a manner that the ends of the cord could not be perceived. A report was circulated that the empire of Asia had been promised by the oracle to him that could untie this knot. Alexander, when he passed by Gordium, cut the knot with his sword.

With Darius the empire of the Persians ended, after a duration of more than two centuries.

After having subjugated the empire of Cyrus, Alexander proceeded to carry his victorious arms into the Indies. The success he had against Porus induced him to abandon the character of moderation which, until then, ho had shown. Intoxicated with his conquests, he suffered himself to be carried to every excess which pride and prosperity could suggest. He returned to Babylon, where a slow but consuming fever, caused by intemperance or poison, brought him to the tomb in the vigor of his age, after a reign of twelve years.

At the death of Alexander, in 324, his vast monarchy was dismembered. Four generals, after bloody wars, divided among themselves the countries which composed it : firstly, Macedonia proper fell to Cassander; secondly, Thrace and Bithynia to Lysimachus; thirdly. Syria to Seleucus; fourthly, Egypt to Ptolemy, the chief of the Lagides.

As to Macedonia proper, the Greeks made vain efforts to subdue it, and their bloody struggles increased to such a degree, that finally the Romans terminated the debate by making war with Philip and Perseus; the latter of whom was conquered at Pydna by Paulus Emilius, and conducted prisoner to Rome (168).

THE ROMAN EMPIRE OF THE EAST.

The Eastern empire was composed of all that had been included in the præfecture of the East, as well as

What was the result of those struggles?

Who conquered Perseus?

With whom did the Persian empire terminate? What country did Alexander next invade?

What was the effect of his success on his character and conduct?-Where and how did he die?

How was his monarchy divided after his death? Did the Greeks exert themselves to subdue Macedonia?

the prefecture of Illyria—that is to say, in Asia, Anatolia, Arabia and Syria; in Africa, Egypt and Lybia; in Europe, all the country situated along the Danube, as-

cending that river as high as Belgrade.

Constantine the Great had transferred the seat of the Roman empire to Byzantium, which was afterward called Constantinople. After the death of that prince, (336,) Constantine II, Constantius and Constants, his sons, Julian the Apostate and Jovian, reigned successively over the whole of the empire.

Then the first division of the empire took place, 364, under Valentinian I, who retained for himself the West and gave the East to his brother Valens; but the complete separation of the two empires did not take place until 395, at the death of Theodosius the Great, who, after having reunited them both, left that of the East to Arcadius, and that of the West to Honorius. We have seen the latter falling beneath the strokes of the Heruli, in 476; we shall occupy ourselves then exclusively with the former.

Nothing is more revolting than the detailed history of that empire; its annals present but few princes worthy of notice, while we read there, on every page, multiplied cruelties, usurpations and religious quarrels. The princes who may be cited are:

Theodosius II, called the Younger, son of Arcadius, to whom we are indebted for the code which bears his

Of what countries was the Eastern empire composed?

What is said of Constantine the Great? Who were his successors until Jovian?

Under whom and when did the first division of the empire take place?—What distribution did Valentinian make of it?
Under whom did the complete and final separation of the

two empires take place?

Who had the Eastern and who the Western empire? What is said of the history of the Eastern empire? What is said of Theodosius II?—Of his code?

name, and in which he collected all the imperial constitutions, from Constantine to himself. This code was not in use until the time of Justinian (VI century); but the Ostrogoths, the Lombards, the Visigoths, the Burgundians, the Franks, and other nations who were settled in the Roman provinces, preserved it. Theodosius had a sister called Pulcheria, who, during his minority, governed the kingdom with firmness; Athenais, his wife, daughter of Leontinus, an Athenian philosopher, was very learned (408-450).

Justinian, whose reign was full of glory, of faults and of misfortunes. Belisarius and Narses, his generals, rendered Italy and Africa subject to him; but what confered most honor on this prince, was a code of laws drawn up by the quæstor Tribonian. This system of legislation, though incomplete, is highly esteemed (527-565).

Heraclius, under whom Mahomet appeared in 622. This emperor defeated the Persians, and made alliance with the Turks; the Arabs took from him Syria and Egypt (from 632 to 641).

Leo III, the Isaurian, of low origin, but who distinguished himself by his courage. He suppressed the worship of images, and thus began the religious quarrel of the Iconoclasts (717-741).

Constantine IV, Copronymus, whose eyes his mother Irene caused to be dug out. That princess, of great capacity, but of a blind superstition, committed atrocities towards her people.

Who was Pulcheria?-Athenais?

What was the character of Justinian's reign?

Who were his generals, and what were their exploits?

What conferred most honor on his reign?

What is said of Heraclius?—Of Leo the Isaurian?—Of Constantine Copronymus?—Of Irene?

PAMILY OF THE COMNENI.

Alexis Comnenus, who was beaten in Dalmatia by Robert Guiscard, duke of Calabria. It was under him that the first crusade took place. He deceived the crusaders who passed by Constantinople on their way to Palestine. Anna Comnena, his daughter, a princess of much talent, has written his life in fifteen books, from 1081 to 1108.

John Comnenus, who made himself master of Armenia. A poisoned arrow, which he had in his quiver, produced

his death: he was a good and just prince.

Manuel Comnenus, who betrayed the warriors of the second crusade: he conducted himself sufficiently well with regard to Louis the Younger. Roger I, king of Sicily, made war upon him; it lasted during five years: Manuel destroyed the Roman marine through avarice (from 1143 to 1180).

Alexis II Commenus. Andronicus, cousin-german of Manuel, rendered himself master of Constantinople during his minority, and caused the empress-mother, called Mary, to be strangled. The young emperor committed unheard of cruelties towards the great; but the people, indignant at so many crimes, laid hold of the tyrant, loaded him with chains, overwhelmed him with torments, and hung him by the feet (from 1180 to 1183 and 1185).

Isuac Angelus gained the affection of his subjects by his mildness, but he was of a feeble character, and devoted to his pleasures. His brother, Alexis Angelus, dethroned him, caused his eyes to be dug out and threw him into a prison (from 1185 to 1195); but Alexis the

What is said of Anna Comnena?

What were the achievement, death and character of John

What is narrated of Manuel Comnenus?—Of Alexis II and Andronicus?—Of Isaac Angelus and his brother Alexis?—Of his son?

What happened under the reign of Alexis Comnenus?

sou of Isaac, fied, betook himself to his sister Irene, wife of the emperor of Germany, and raised in favor of his father the entire West. The crusaders were then assembled at Venice; they directed their course towards Constantinople, arrived before that city (1203), laid siege to it and took it; the usurper fled; Isaac Angelus was replaced upon the throne. But soon a prince of the house of Ducas, called Alexis Ducas, and surnamed Murzulphus, on account of his heavy eyebrows, succeeded in destroying the prince in the good opinion of the people, and removing the young Alexis Comnenus. The Latins besieged Constantinople anew, took it, precipitated the usurper from the top of a tower, and placed upon the throne a French prince, Baldwin I, count of Flanders, in 1204. The Greek empire was thus divided.

The Venitians took to themselves the islands near the

Peloponessus, and some Asiatic isles.

Boniface, marquis of Montserrat, took the provinces

beyond the Bosphorus.

Villehardouin, marshall of Champagne, took Greece properly so called; James d' Avenne, of Hainault, had the island of Eubwa.

EMPIRE OF THE LATINS.

There were at that time two christian empires of the East, the one in Asia, the other in Europe.

In Asia, Theodore Lascaris, husband of Ann, the daughter of Alexis III, passed over into Anatolia, and

How did the son of Isaac avenge his father?
What did the crusaders do in his behalf?
What is said of Alexis Ducas?
What did the Latins do at Constantinople?
How was the Greek empire divided at this time?
What two Christian empires then existed?
What is said of Theodore Lascaris?

caused himself to be acknowledged despotes (master); he was proclaimed emperor at Nice. His successors narrowed the territory of Constantinople, and Michael Palaologus, one of them, possessed himself of the empire in 1261. Trebizond was, until 1462, the seat of a Greek empire. Mahomet, emperor of the Turks, who was then upon the throne of Constantinople, brought out before the public in that city David Comnenus, their sovereign, and put him to death. Descendants of the family of the Comneni still exist in France and England.

In Europe Baldwin I was appointed emperor on the 16th of May, 1204, and was taken by the Bulgarians, who cut off his legs and arms and delivered him to wild beasts.

He reigned two years (1206).

Henry, his brother, succeeded him. He made war with success against the Bulgarians; he was recognized

as emperor by Theodore Lascaris.

He was followed by Peter of Courtenay, count of Auxerre, brother-in-law of Henry, and grandson of Louis the Gross; Theodore, prince of Epirus, made him prisoner, and put him to death at the close of two years. Yoland, his wife, governed wisely in his place (1216-1221).

Robert, son of Peter, a feeble, indolent prince, suffered the two Greek empires of Trebizond and Thessalonica to

be taken from him (1221-1228).

Baldwin II, son of Peter de Courtenay, was under the tutelage of John de Brienne, king of Jerusalem. At the death of that prince Baldwin had to combat the Greeks of Nice, who, under the emperor Michael, possessed themselves of Constantinople on the 25th of July,

What city was the seat of the empire until 1462? How did Mahomet treat its last sovereign?

What is said of his successors?
Who got possession of the empire in 1261?

What is said of Baldwin I?—Of Henry?—Of Peter of Courtenay and Yoland?—Of Robert?—Of Baldwin II?

1261. Baldwin fled in disguise, and landed in Italy, where he died in 1273.

Second Greek Empire.

THE PALEOLOGI.

Repeated concussions had shaken the Greek empire to its very foundations. The Ottoman sultans, who succeeded about the year 1300 in forming for themselves a petty state in Asia Minor, profited by the troubles of Constantinople, and established themselves in Thrace in 1362. John II Palæolagus was vanquished at Varna on the 10th of November, 1444, by the sultan Amurath II.

It is in this famous battle that Ladislas, the king of Poland and Hungary, was conquered and slain. Amurath caused his head to be put in a vessel filled with honey, and sent it to Prussia. It is said that he caused his hand to be cut off in order to punish him for having signed a treaty which he had not the honesty to regard.

The Turks continued to march from one victory to another. Finally, on the 29th of May, 1453, the sultan, Mahomet II, laid siege to Constantinople, took it, and established there the seat of the Turkish empire. This revolution put an end to the Greek empire, called also the Lower empire.

Constantine, surnamed Dragases, the last emperor, perished in the breach, with arms in his hands.

The fall of Constantinople shed terror among the Christian nations. The pope, Pius II, spoke eloquently

What was the consequences of the agitations of the Greek empire?—Where was John II Palæologus vanquished?

What was the fate of Ladislas ?-Who was he?

Under whom and when did the Turks capture Constantinople?—What was the fate of Dragases?

How did the fall of Constantinople affect the minds of Christendom?

in favor of the faith and the civilization which had perished in the East; but policy froze the hearts of the European princes, and the West permitted Asiatic barbarians to seat themselves upon the throne of the Casars.

REMARKS ON THE EASTERN EMPIRE.

The empire of the East was destroyed 2206 years after the foundation of Rome, 1124 years after the translation of the seat of the Roman empire to Byzantium, 1089 years after the first, and 1058 years after the second division of that empire.

It has been remarked that the Roman empire, founded by Augustus, was overturned under an Augustus; that of Constantinople, begun by Constantine, was destroyed under a Constantine; and that of Trebizond, founded by David Comnenus, was overthrown under a David of the same family.

· Secondary Nations of Ancient History.

IN ASTA.

The Armenians, between the Pontus-Euxinus and the Caspian sea, to the north of Mesopotamia. Their capital was Tigranocertes. The Armenians give themselves the name of Haikans, after one of their fabulous kings, a great grandson of Japhet. Their origin and history are little

Can you tell how long the destruction of the Eastern empire was after the foundation of Rome?—The translation of the seat of the empire to Byzantium?—The first and second divisions of the empire?

What remarkable coincidences does the history of the empire present?

Where were the Armenians anciently situated?

What was the name of their capital? What did they call themselves, and why?

known. They had many kings, among whom Tigranes is distinguished; that prince leagued himself with Mithridates, king of Pontus, against the Romans, who defeated him (I century of J. C.). Their country is at the present day divided between the Turks and the Persians. The Armenians are traders, and are scattered through all the provinces of the Ottoman empire.

The Cappadocians, at the eastern extremity of Asia Minor. They were bounded on the north by Pontus, on the south by Cilicia, on the west by Phrygia, and on the

east by Armenia. Their capital was Casarea.

The Cappadocians were subdued by the Lydians; afterward by Cyrus, king of Persia, who gave them a king (VI century). The government continued to be monarchical until the I century, when they were subdued by the Romans. At present Cappadocia makes a part of the Turkish empire.

The Pontines, in the northern part of Asia Minor, south of the Pontus-Enxinus and north of Cappadocia. Their principal cities were Amasæus, Neo-Cæsaria, and Trapazus. The Pontines had their own kings, among whom we remark Mithridates, who opposed the Romans during forty years. Pontus became a Roman province. It forms at present a part of Turkey in Asia.

The Bithynians, in the northern part of Asia Minor, south of Pontus-Euxinus, north of Phrygia, east of the Propontis (sea of Marmora), and west of Paphlagonia. Principal cities: Nice, Nicodema, Prusa, and Chalcedon. The first king of the Bithyniaus, Nicomedes III, was deprived of his possessions by Mithridates, king of Pontus. Pompey re-established him. Nicomedes, at his death,

Who was the most distinguished among their kings?
What is said of him?—How is Armenia at present divided?
What is the present state of the Armenians?

What is said of the Cappadocians?—Of the Pontines?—The Bithynians?

bequeathed his dominions to the Romans. It was at Lybissa, in Bithynia, that Hannibal died.

The Pergamotes, to the north-west of Asia Minor, in Mysia. Pergamus fell to the portion of Lysimachus, one of the lieutenants of Alexander. After Lysimachus she had three kings of her own, among whom we remark Attalus III, who, having no children, made the Romans his heirs.

The Lydians, in the western part of Asia Minor, south of Mysia, north of Caria, and west of Phrygia. Principal cities: Sardis and Ephesus. The Lydians were governed successively by three families: the Atyades, the Heraclides, and the Mermnades, until Crosus, who was vanquished by Cyrus (VI century). The kingdom was then destroyed, and passed successively under the dominion of the Persians, the Macedonians, the Syrians, and the Romans. At present Lydia makes a part of Turkey in Asia.

The Carians, in the south-western part of Asia Minor, bounded on the north by Lydia, on the west by the Ægean sea (Archipelago), on the south by the Mediterranean, and on the east by Lycia. Principal cities: Halicarnassus, Miletus, Gnidus. The Carians were governed by twenty-six kings, the most celebrated of whom was Mausolus, the husband of Artemisia. Caria forms at present a part of Turkey in Asia.

The Phrygians, at the centre of Asia Minor, bounded on the north by Bithynia and Galatia, on the south by Lycia and Pysidia, on the east by Cappadocia. Principal cities: Hieropolis, Apamea, and Laodicea. The Phrygians were at first governed by kings of their own, and afterward fell successively under the dominion of the

What is said of the Pergamotes?

Can you give the history of the Lydians?—The Carians?—The Phrygians?

Persians, Macedonians, and Romans. At present Phrygia forms a part of Turkey in Asia.

IN EUROPE.

The Epirotes, on the shore of the Adriatic sea, west of Macedonia and Thessaly. Pyrrhus, who made war against the Romans with success, was one of their most celebrated kings (II century). They were subdued by the Romans under Paulus Æmilius. Afterward the Venetians held possession of Epirus until the XV century, when it submitted to the yoke of the Turks.

The Thessalians. It was from Thessaly, situated to the north of Greece, that the Hellenes went forth to spread themselves through the whole of that country; at the epoch of the Trojan war it contained ten petty kingdoms, of which the greater part belonged to the most renowned heroes of that age, such as Achilles and Philoctetes. The Thessalians were not skillful enough to preserve for any length of time their political liberty. Larissa and Pheres were their principal cities.

At Larissa, the Alculadian family, which claimed to have descended from Hercules, maintained its dominion until the age of Alexander.

At Pheres there rose in the V century (408) a tyrant called Jason, who extended his dominion to a considerable distance. One of his brothers, Alexander, was conquered by Pelopidas, and assassinated (in 346), at the instigation of his wife, Thebe, by his brothers Lycophron and Tisiphomus. These last were driven out by Philip, king of Macedonia. Afterward Thessaly followed the fate of Greece.

The Etolians. The Etolians, situated to the west of Greece, were gross and barbarous; they carried on their

Can you repeat the history of the Epirotes ?—The Thessalians?—The Etolians?

robberies by land and sea. Among them Penaus, Meleager, and Diomenes, are celebrated. This people long resisted the Macedonians and the Romans; they formed a league which became formidable to the Achaens. They were at length subdued by the Romans, like the other nations of Greece.

The Phocians. The Phocians, at the centre of Greece proper, were descended from Phocus, the chief of a Corinthian colony. They were at first governed by kings, and afterward constituted themselves into a sort of republic, the form of which is not known. The city of Bressa formed a small independent state. The Amphicityons declared war with the Phocians on account of their outrages upon the temple of Delphi; it was terminated ten years afterward by the interposition of Philip, king of Macedonia; this is what was called the sacred war.

The Baotians. With the ancient colonies of Baotia, situated to the north of Attica, the Phenicians led into Greece by Cadmus were mingled. The family of that hero reigned there for a long time, and the history of the kings of Thebes is one of the branches of the Greek Mythology. The monarchical form of government was abolished in Baotia (about 1126) in the XII century, at the death of Xuthus. Afterward, each city of that province formed a state; a circumstance which gave rise to a league in which Thebes was included. Eleven magistrates, called bæotarchi, were at the head of the confederation. Many wars took place between these petty republics; they frequently united against that of Thebes, which excited their jealousy. Epaminondas and Pelopidas brought their country out of obscurity, but she sunk back to it again after their death (IV century).

The Corinthians. The house of Sysiphus reigned dur-

Can you repeat the history of the Phocians?—Of the Bectians?—Of the Corinthians?

ing a long time over Corinth, a city situated at the northeast of the Peloponessus. The Dorians put an end to their dominion by the conquest which they made of that city. Two families of the race of Hercules afterward occupied the throne. Every year, after the VIII century, a prytanis or supreme magistrate was chosen, until the VII century, when Cypellus became master of the country. In 557 Periander, his son, rendered himself odious by his avarice and cruelty. The Corinthians, weary of the tyranny of their leaders, freed themselves from their yoke in 581. The citizens of Corinth were the richest traders in Greece. The situation of their city was very favorable to them; they had numerous colonies. These were, at the west, Corcyra, Epylamnus, Leucas, Syracuse; and to the east, Potidar. The magnificence and dissoluteness of the Corinthians were carried to the highest degree; it was necessary to be rich in order to participate in their feasts and pleasures; a fact which gave rise to that proverh: " All the world is not permitted to go to Corinth."

Mummius, the Roman consul, pillaged this city, and almost entirely destroyed it 146 years before J. C.; but Julius Casar sent thither a colony, and made every effort in his power to raise it again from its ruins, and to restore it to its former splendor.

Achaens. Achaia, situated at the north of the Peloponessus, was at first known under the name of Ægialeus. The Ionians reigned there until the Achaens, driven from Argos by the Dorians, dreve them back in their turn, and established themselves in the country under Tisamenes, the son of Orestes. The last of the successors of that prince was called Gyges; his cruelty was the cause of the abolition of monarchical power. The twelve cities of Achaia then formed a confederation, but

they were subdued by the kings of Macedonia, successors of Alexander the Great. In 281 before J. C., having expelled their tyrants, they formed anew a celebrated league, into which several nations of the Peloponessus entered, and which rendered itself formidable during 135 years. Among the great men who were at the head of the Achean league, we shall mention only Aratus and Philopæmen. The league fought for the independence of Greece, threatened by the Romans; but it was destroyed by the consul Mummius, in the year 146.

Messenians. The Messenians inhabited the finest country of Greece; they owed their celebrity to three bloody struggles which they sustained against the Spartans, their neighbors; the issue of these wars was unfortunate for them. Some of them were reduced to slavery and confounded with the Helots; others quitted Peloponessus and retired into Sicily, where they founded the

city of Messina, formerly Zancle.

The Cretes, in the island of Crete, south-east of the Peloponessus, in Europe. Principal cities, Gortyna, Cydonia and Gnossæ. They were at first governed by kings, among whom we notice Minos, their lawgiver, (XV century before Jesus Christ); afterward they constituted themselves a republic, until their subjugation by the Romans. They passed successively under the dominion of the emperors of the East (IV century), the Arabs (IX century), the Genoese (X century), the Venitians (XIII century), and the Turks, to whom they are still subject.

The Syracusans, in Europe, occupied the south-eastern part of Sicily. Capital, Syracuse. The government of Syracuse was by turns republican and tyrannical; among her kings, we shall cite Dionysius the Tyrant, and Diony-

What is said of the Messenians?—The Cretes?—The Syracusans?

sius the Younger. The Athenians laid siege to that city (V century). The Romans took it two centuries afterward and retained it until he invasion of the Barbarians. Syracuse belongs at present to the king of the Two Sicilies.

The Caledonians in North Britain were of Celtic origin; their manners were barbarous; they were beaten by the Roman general Agricola, and afterward by the emperor Severus (III century), who caused a famous wall to be built between Scotland and England; some vestiges of it still remain.

The Britons were likewise of Celtic origin; they governed themselves by their own laws until the conquest of their southern coasts by Julius Cæsar (55 years before J. C.) A century later, under the emperor Domitian. Agricola got possession of their whole island, and, under Constantius Chlorus or the Pale (III century), Britain became a Roman province. In the V century, when the barbarians invaded the empire of the West, the Romans withdrew their garrison from Britain. Desolated by the excursions of the Caledoniaus, the Britons called to their aid the Angles and the Saxons, German nations, and were subdued by their defenders. Some withdrew into the principality of Wales, others into Armoric Gaul, which at the present day is called Bretagne.

The Germans, or Alemanni nations of central Europe, warlike, simple, but obdurate and sanguinary. Attacked almost continually by the Romans during two centuries and a half, and never subdued, they attacked them in their turn, and defeated them under the emperor Augustus; conducted by Arminius, they threw themselves in hordes upon the provinces of the western empire, and there established themselves. The greater part of the

What is said of the Caledonians?—The Britens?—The Germans?

nations of modern Europe descended from these formidable people. At the present day we denominate Germans in general the nations which occupy the country of Germany.

The Gauls, of Celtic origin, to the west of Europe, were warlike and enterprising. From the VI century

before J. C. they made five important expeditions.

The first, under the command of Bellovesus; they passed the Alps and set about founding a colony in the north of Italy. They built there Milan, Cremona, Padua, &c. (VI century before J. C).

The second, under Sigovesus, at the same epoch; they traversed the Hyrcinian forest, and founded a colony in the centre of Germany, in Bohemia and Pannonia.

The third, under the command of Brennus I, a descendant of Bellovesus: they vanquished the Romans on the banks of the Allia, took Rome, and, after a sojourn of some months, burnt it. They were repulsed by the Roman general Camillus (IV century).

The fourth, under the command of Belgius and Brennus II; they ravaged Macedonia and Thrace, and advanced as far as Greece in order to pillage the temple of Delphos.

This expedition was unfortunate (III century).

The fifth, in the III century; they founded a colony in Asia Minor, where they had been to place Nicomedes upon the throne of Bithynia. Galatia or Gallo-Grecia became their residence.

Finally, these formidable nations were subdued by Jalius Cæsar, who reduced the whole of Gaul under the Roman dominion. In the V century after J. C. Gaul was invaded by the Franks, the Burgundians and the Visigoths, and thus was formed the kingdom of France, under Clovis I (481).

What character is given of the Gauls?
What five important expeditions did they make?
By what invasions was the kingdom of France formed?

The Iberians or Hispanians (Spanish) were in part of Phenician origin. They were successively subdued by the Carthaginians and the Romans, and their country was the theatre of long and terrible wars between those two nations in the V century. Spain was invaded by the Suevi, the Alani, the Vandals, and the Visigoths. These last established themselves there definitively, forming the Visigothic kingdom.

IN ITALY.

The Etruscans have been cited as the most ancient people of Europe; their origin is uncertain and their history little known. They bore successively the name of Tyrrheni and Pelasgi, which the Greeks gave them; the Romans called them Thusci (from thus, god or incense), on account of their attachment to the worship of the gods; from this name that of the Etruscans has been formed. Their taste for the arts has rendered them celebrated. Their country was divided into twelve states, each of which had a prince called lucumo. Among these states the Veii and the Falisci were distinguished. The Romans, who borrowed a great deal from the Etruscans in the arts, the sciences, military tactics and religious ceremonies, subdued them and sent into their country a great number of colonies.

The Latins inhabited Latium; they called themselves aborigines, that is, originating in the place where they dwelt. They had many wars to maintain against the Romans, who, after having defeated them several times, particularly near the lake Regillus, in the V century before Jesus Christ (498), subdued them entirely in the IV century (340), and conferred on them the right of the city,

What account is given of the Iberians?—Etruscans?—Latins?

by the Julian law, in the I century (90). The principal Latin nations were the Volsci, the Equi and the Rutuli.

The Sabines were the most ancient people of Italy; they are thought to have been originally from the Peloponessus; they were already powerful at the epoch of the foundation of Rome. The Romans having taken from them their wives and daughters, they penetrated into Rome itself in pursuit of them; they consented to a treaty, and incorporated themselves with the Romans, who completely subdued them in the IV century.

The Samnites descended from the Sabines. Formidable enemies of the Romans, whom they caused to pass under the yoke at Furcæ Caudinæ; they were subdued by that people in the III century, after long and bloody

wars.

The Tarentines, a powerful nation, but too celebrated for their effeminacy, their luxury and evil manners, were at first governed by kings, and afterward formed themselves into a republic. Having provoked the vengeance of the Romans, they called to their assistance Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, the greatest captain of his age (III century); after some successes they were subdued; they soon revolted and took the part of Hannibal; but on the retreat of that great general they returned permanently under the yoke of the Romans.

IN AFRICA.

The Moors, inhabitants of Mauritania, a Nomadic people, whose history is little known; they placed themselves under the protection of the Romans. Octavius reduced their country to a Roman province, and laid it

What is said of the Sabines?—The Samnites?—The Tarentines?—The Moors?

waste; he gave them Juba for their king, whose son Ptolemy, the emperor Caligula caused to be assassinated (I century). The Moors then took up arms, having at their head a freed man of Ptolemy; but they succumbed once more, and became subject to the Roman people.

The Numidians were nomades; their frugality and their address are well known, and they were excellent cavaliers. They were unknown to the Romans until the second Punic war. They were then governed by Massinissa, who took part with the Romans. Jugurtha, nephew of that prince, after a bloody war was carried prisoner to Rome; and in the I century Numidia was reduced to a Roman province. After the invasion of the barbarians this country passed successively to the Vandals, the Arabs, and finally to the Turks, who possessed it only in name. It is at present the kingdom of Algiers.

NATIONS WHICH INVADED THE ROMAN EMPIRE.

The Burgundians, under the conduct of Gundicaire, traversed Germany and settled in the western part of Gaul. They were governed by dukes until Charles the Rash, after whose death Burgundy, as a male fief, was united to the crown of France by Louis XI (XV century). The other part of their country passed under the dominion of Austria.

The Suevi, under Hermanric their chief, traversed Germany and Gaul, and at length established themselves in Spain, where they were conquered by the Visigoths (VI century).

The Vandals, conducted by Genseric, traversed Germany and united with the Suevi; they laid waste Gaul and Spain, in the southern part of which they established

What account is given of the Numidians?—The Burgundians?—The Suevi?—The Vandals?

themselves; afterward, at the approach of the Visigoths, they passed into Africa, and founded a kingdom upon the ruins of Carthage. They were conquered by Belisarius, general of Justinian (VI century).

The Alani, under their chief Gonderic, traversed Pannonia (Hungary), Germany and Gaul, and settled in Spain, where they were defeated by the Visigoths (V

century).

The Franks were an independent association of German nations, among whem we notice in particular the Eicambri. They passed the Rhine under Pharamond their chief, established themselves in the north of Gaul, gradually spread themselves through the country, and finally got possession of the whole region, to which they gave the name of France.

The Angles and the Saxons, who had for their leaders Hongist and Horsa, were invited into Great Britain by its inhabitants, in order that they might defend them against the incursions of the Piets and Caledonians. After having driven out those barbarians, they possessed themselves of Britain, and founded there seven governments under the name of the heptarchy.

The Huns, who had at their head Attila, advanced as far as Paunonia. They afterward invaded Gaul, where they were defeated at Châlons-sur-Marne, by Actius, a Roman general, seconded by the Franks under the conduct of Merovæus, and by Theodoric, king of the Visigoths. After this terrible defeat Attila went to ravage Italy; at his approach the Venedes fled into the lagoons of the Adriatic sea, and there founded Venice. The death of Attila gave rise to discords which rent asunder the empire of the Huns. Some of them established themselves in Pannonia (Hungary), others peopled Poland and Russia.

What is the history of the Alani?—The Franks?—The Angles and Saxons?—The Huns?

The Heruli had for their chief Odoacer. They settled in Italy, and drove from the imperial throne Romulus Augustulus (V century); but they were themselves vanquished or driven out by the Ostrogoths.

The Goths, the most formidable of the German nations, had for their chief Hermanric (V century); they were divided into Visigoths (Goths of the west), and Ostro-

goths (Goths of the east).

The Visigoths, with Alaric at their head, traversed Greece, passed into Italy, and took Rome twice, which they sacked. They established themselves in the south of Gaul, from which they were driven: they passed over into Spain, where they subdued the Alani, the Suevi and the Vandals. The Visigothic kings governed Spain until the VIII century, when Pelagius, their last king, was driven from it by the Moors. He retired into the Austurias, where he founded a kingdom.

The Ostrogoths, who had for their chief Theodoric, came into Italy and conquered the Heruli; but they were soon themselves driven out by the Lombards. This was the first of the German nations which embraced the christian religion.

The Lombards, under their chief Alboin, established themselves in the north of Italy, from which they had driven the Ostrogoths. This kingdom was destroyed by Charlemagne, after the defeat of Didier, their last king (VIII century); it had lasted two centuries.

The Avars, leaving the shores of the Caspian sea, came to disturb the emperors of Constantinople, who granted them the second Panuonia. Scarcely settled there, they ravaged Thrace, and forced the emperors of the east to pay them tribute.

The Bulgarians, of Scythian origin, succeeded the

What account is given of the Heruli?—Goths?—Visigoths?—Ostrogoths?—Lombards?—Avars?—Bulgarians?

Avars on the banks of the Danube, in the XVII century, and were subdivided into Croats, Moravians, Wallachians, and Bulgarians properly so called.

The Gepidæ came-from Sweden, as well as the Visigoths and Ostrogoths, from whom they separated on their arrival in Germany. According to some authors the word gcpidæ signifies indolent.

The Venedes and the Slavonians lived near the Baltic

sea, about the mouth of the Vistula.

The Danes and the Normans, people of northern Europe, during the middle age rendered themselves formidable to all nations. They made conquests in France, where they settled in the X century: in England, over which they reigned in the XI century; and in the kingdom of Naples and Sicily, of which they also occupied the throne (XII century). The general name of the Normans is lost; but that of the Danes and the Swedes has become illustrious.

OTHER BARBAROUS NATIONS.

The Hungarians (IX century). After many incursions they fixed themselves in Pannonia, and chose a

king called Stephen (X century).

The Moguls (XIII century) were Tartar nations who, under Ghengis khan and his successors, conquered China, Thibet, Arabia, and even Russia. Their immense empire shone for several ages, and was annihilated in the XVI century; an epoch at which the Moguls became subjects of the Tartar Mantchous, who reign at present in China.

The Turks. They left the east of the Caspian sea, in Asia Minor, under the conduct of Othman (XIV cen-

What is said of the Gepidæ?—Venedes and Slavonians?—Danes and Normans?—Hungariaes?—Moguls?—Turks?

tury), and from thence passed into Europe, where they possessed themselves of Constantinople, under Mahomet II (XV century).

[It would be a most useful exercise for the pupil to make a particular map of the emigration of those barbarous nations who invaded the Roman empire. Points differently colored may denote their line of march and place of settlement.]

History of the Middle Age.

POPES.

From the time when christianity was first established, the christians formed assemblies called *ecclesiæ* (churches). The churches, gradually enlarging, and divided in the course of time into small portions, had pastors for the heads of each of these divisions; a bishop was soon appointed to watch over the pastors or patriarchs; the archbishops not long afterwards had under their direction a certain number of bishops.

But from the fourth or fifth century, the head of all christendom, he who claimed to have succeeded to Saint Peter, and who received distinctly the name of pope, was always settled in Rome. That city had passed successively to the Heruli, the Ostrogoths, and the Greeks: under the latter Rome revolted, and formed at that time, with the territory which surrounded it, a sort of free state. It maintained itself under the Lombards, and these last,

What account is given of the early polity of the church? What was the civil state of Rome during this period?

having attempted to rob the popes of their prerogatives, beheld Pepin marching against them, and afterwards his son Charlemagne, who destroyed their power (747).

The pope Leo III crowned Charlemagne emperor of the West (800), and the latter, in recompense, gave to the holy see Rome and its dependencies, still reserving to himself a right of suzerainty* as emperor (IX century).

It was at this epoch that the pope became truly an European sovereign. In the XI century the famous Gregory VII (1073) enfranchised Rome from all tribute of homage, and rendered the holy see altogether independent of the emperors. The papal territory was enlarged by several provinces which were successively united with it.

We notice in the history of the Roman Church:

1. The patronage of Constantine and his successors, during which the church reposed, flourished, and became secular.

2. The quarrel about Investitures, under Gregory VII (XI century), which lasted many centuries: this is what is called also the war of the priesthood, or of the Guelphs and Ghibellines.

3. The important donations to the holy see by the princess Matilda (XII century).

4. The crusades, from the XI century to the end of the XIII.

Who defended the papacy against the Lombards?

What is related of Leo III, and Charlemagne?

When and how did the pope become an European sovereign?

How was the papal territory enlarged?

What are the leading events in the history of the church of Rome ?

^{*} The term suzerainty, which is frequently met with in the history of the middle age, differs from sovereignty, which is often used as its equivalent, in this: that the suzerain was not always a monarch or king, but any lard or seignieur to whom feudal service was due.

5. The translation of the pontifical sec to Avignon, during 70 years. This is what is called the captivity of the church, from Clement V to Gregory XI (XIV century).

6. The schism of the West (IX and X century) under Photius and Michael Cerularius, patriarchs of Constanti-

nople.

7. The pontificate of Leo X, of the family of the Medici (XVI century), under whom the *reformation* of Luther took place, which entirely changed the face of christendom. Leo was a patron of the arts and sciences.

8. The separation of England from the papacy under Clement VII (XVI century). Henry VIII, king of England, detached his subjects from the church of Rome.

9. The loss of the county Venaissin, taken from the pope by the French revolution, under Pius VI (XVIII

century).

10.10. The invasion of Rome by the French, and the transformation of the states of the church into a republic. Pius VI was conducted to France, where he died at Valentia, in 1799 (XVIII century.)

11. The conquest of the rest of the states of the church by Napoleon in 1810, who formed out of them the departments of Rome and Trasimene. The pope Pius VII was carried into France, where he remained till 1814, when he returned to Rome.

12. The restitution of the states of the church to the holy see by the congress of Vienna in 1815, with the exception of the county Venaissin, which remained subject to France. Pius IX is at present (1847) on the pontifical throne; the commencement of his pontificate has been distinguished by the adoption of liberal principles.

THE FRENCH.

The French, a mixture of Celts, Gauls, Burgundians,

Franks, and Visigoths, had at the outset chiefs whose history is almost unknown; Pharamond, Clodion, Meroweus, the latter remarkable by his victory over Attila, king of the Huns, near Chalons-sur-Marne, and Childeric; but the French acknowledge for the founder of their monarchy Clovis I (481), who extingushed the Roman power and name in Gaul; he then became master of the whole of that country, with the exception of what the Burgundians occupied at the east and the Visigoths at the south.

We shall divide the history of France into two great races: first, the conquering race; secondly, the national race.

The conquering race, that is to say, the race of Frank leaders who subdued Gaul, is divided into two parts: first, the conquering race of the Mero-Wings or Merovingians; secondly, the conquering race of the Karolins, which we call Carlovingians.

The national race, that is to say, the race of Frank kings placed upon the throne by the choice of the nation, is called the dynasty of the Capetians.

MEROVINGIANS.

Under the *Merovingians*, we remark, during the reign of eighteen kings, and during nearly three centuries from 481 to 752, four principal events:

First, the cstablishment of Christianity in France under Clovis.

Secondly, the introduction of the custom of dividing the monarchy among the male children of the sovereign,

Who are distinguished among their early chiefs? Who was the founder of their monarchy? Into how many races may the French be divided? How is the conquering race subdivided?

Why is the national race so called?

What were the duration and numbers of the Merovingian kings?—What are the principal events under that dynasty?

a natural division, which still was a source of discord among the brothers, and of misfortune for the people. But these dismemberments of the empire had not at that time the character of political acts; for they did not take place absolutely, except with regard to personal property, moveable or immoveable. They occurred three times: at the death of Clovis (511), when the monarchy was divided into the four kingdoms of Orleans, Paris, Soissons and Metz; at the death of Clotaire I (561), when it was again divided into four kingdoms; and at the death of Dagobert, in (658), when it was divided into Austrasia and Neustria.

The eastern or Austrasian Franks were called the Ripuarii, because they were settled upon the banks (Ripu) of the Meuse and the Rhine.

The Salian or western Franks were called Salii, because they came from the borders of the river Sala. The Ripuarians and the Salians, although having the same origin, were not confounded together; they were even rivals, and that rivalry produced civil wars, which were prolonged during the whole of the VII century; until finally, at the commencement of the VIII, a reaction was brought about by the change of dynasty, which transfered the dominion from the Salians to the Ripuarians, the royalty from the Merovingians to the Carlovingians, and the seat of the Frank kingdom from the banks of the Seine to those of the Rhine.

Thirdly, the rise of the power of the mayors of the palace, caused by the feebleness of the kings, called fainéants (do-nothings): those lords or ministers invaded by de-

What is said of the dismemberments of the French empire?

What were the eastern Franks denominated?

What were the western Franks called?

What relation did the Ripuarians and Salians sustain to each other?—How was their rivalry terminated?

What gave rise to the power of the mayors of the palace?

grees the royal authority, and ended by transfering it to

Fourthly, the victories of Charles Martel, duke of the Franks, over the Moors or Arabs, who had possessed themselves of Spain, and advanced as far as Tours,

hoping to conquer France (VIII century).

Charles beat the Saracens a second time near Narbonne, and delivered France from them for ever. The Frank king, Thierry II, died, and Charles governed alone during five years, under the title of duke of the Franks and Austrasians; this interregnum prepared the way for the fall of the Salian Franks, which we have just mentioned.

CARLOVINGIANS.

We remark, under fourteen kings, and during more than two centuries, from 752 to 987:

First, the reign of Pepin, who caused his authority to be recognized by the leudes or seigneurs, and by the Roman church; the latter sauctioned his elevation in the name of religion, which had sanctioned in like manner that of Clovis. Thus the ascendancy of this second race bore a double character, that of a religious revolution and that of a political one.

Secondly, the celebrated reign of *Charlemagne* the son of *Pepin* the *Short*: politician, legislator, warrior, protector of letters, he united under his laws almost the whole of Europe. He was crowned emperor of the

Over whom did Charles Martel obtain repeated victories? How far into Europe had the Moors advanced? Where were they finally defeated by Charles? What is said of Charles after the death of Thierry II? What was the effect of the interregnum? What are the number and duration of the Carlovingians? What is said of the reign of Pepin?—Of Charlemagne?

West in 800 by the pope Leo III; but his descendants

were not worthy of him.

Thirdly, the establishment of feudalism (under Charles the Bold), which so elevated the power of the lords that they followed the example of the mayors of the palace, and seated themselves upon the throne of their kings (IX century).

Fourthly, the loss of the German empire under Charles

the Simple (912).

Fifthly, the establishment of the Normans or nations of the North, in Norman Neustria, under the feeble Charles the Simple (X century). For a long time these Scandinavians had ravaged France; instead of fighting them, their retreat was purchased by money; they became audacious, and Rollo, their chief, caused a French province to be given him.

Sixthly, the royal authority was abased and annihilated; Hugh Capet, one of the most powerful vassals, mounted the throne in 987. But it was not merely the power of the lords, on the one hand, and the feebleness of the kings on the other, which caused the fall of the Carlovingians; a national revolution was by slow degrees effected in the language and manners of the Franks. In the IX century the Roman language, spoken by the people, became a national bond; the Frank dynasty, which had preserved the old Teutonic tongue, was regarded as foreign. The new French established upon the banks of the Seine, on the dissolution of the Western empire

When did the establishment of the Normans take place?

What rendered them audacious? What donation was made to Rollo?

What causes led to the downfal of the royal authority of

the Carlovingians?

What effect did the fall of the Western empire produce on French nationality?

What resulted from the establishment of feudalism?
Under whom was the monarchy of France separated from
the empire of Germany as held by Charlemagne?

(888), raised their heads, and from that time there was rivalry between these nationals and the Carlovingians. Eudes and Ravul were proclaimed kings, and soon the royalty of the conquest gave place to the royalty of the nation. It is from this third revolution that the commencement of the French monarchy really dates.

CAPETIANS.

The third race is divided into three parts: first, the Capets; secondly, the Valois; thirdly, the Bourbons; it reckons thirty-eight kings, and has lasted nearly eight centuries and a half.

Under the Capets we remark:

First, the establishment of the communes, or the enfranchisement of the people, who were enslaved until this epoch; they were able henceforth to defend themselves against the fendal tyranny, of which the institution of communes diminished the oppression under Louis VI (1108).

Secondly, the crusades, or religious expeditions for delivering the tomb of Jesus Christ, which was fallen under the power of the Turks. They hastened the progress of the arts and of civilization in Europe, gave a new impulse to commerce and navigation, and diminished the power of the lords, who still strove to strengthen themselves; but they also occasioned great destruction of men and money. They commenced under Philip I (1095), and ended under Louis IX (1270), who died of the plague at Tunis.

What were the consequences of the rivalry between the nationals and the Carlovingians?

Into how many parts is the third race divided?

What are its number and duration?

What remarkable events took place under the Capets? What was the effect of the establishment of communes?

What were the effects of the crusades?—How long did they last?

Thirdly, the conquests of Philip Augustus, who defeated the English and Germans at Bouvines, 1214, and united to the crown Normandy, Anjou, Maine, Touraine, &c.

Fourthly, the *establishments*, or code of laws of Saint Louis, who, seated at the foot of an oak, in the wood of Vincennes, rendered justice to his subjects in person.

Fifthly, the convocation of the States' General, composed of the clergy, the nobility, and the people, the latter of whom were called the third estate. They confirmed the authority of the king, weakened that of the lords, and raised the people from their abasement (1302).

Sixthly, the maintenance of that article of the salic law which excluded females from the inheritance of the conquered land; it is regarded as a fundamental law of the State, by two memorable decisions: first, at the death of John I, in favor of Philip V, called the Long, against Jane of Navarre, daughter of Louis X (1316); secondly, at the death of Charles IV, called the Fair, in favor of Philip de Valois, against Edward III, king of England (1328).

Under the Valois, France was unfortunate externally and internally.

Externally, first, by the wars with England, which placed France in peril, under Philip VI, who was conquered at Crecy; under John II, called the Good, who was conquered and made prisoner at Poitiers; under Charles VI, conquered at Azincourt, and whose wife, Isabel of Bayaria, sold France to the English, at the trea-

What were the achievements of Philip Augustus? What is said of the Establishments of St. Louis?

What were the consequences of convoking the States' General?

By what memorable decisions was the Salic law confirmed? What was the state of France under the Valois?

What calamities befel France in her wars with the English?

ty of Troyes (1420); and under Charles VII, who was reduced at the outset to the city of Bourges, but afterward victorious over the English, whom he drove from France with the singular assistance of Joan of Arc, an enthusiastic young woman of Lorraine.

Secondly, by the wars of Italy, which were the source of the greatest losses in men and money, under Charles VIII, who yet conquered the enemy at Parma; under Louis XII, conquered at Seminara and Cerignoles (kingdom of Naples), but conqueror at Agnadel and Ravenna; and under Francis I, victorious in the commencement at Marignan, but conquered and made prisoner at Pavia (1525).

Thirdly, by the Austrian wars under Henry II. Victorious at first over the Imperialists at Renti, that king was conquered at Saint Quentin by the arms of Philip II, king of Spain, who was leagued with England against France.

Internally, by the civil wars which desolated France during three centuries: firstly, that of Charles the Bad, king of Navarre and son-in-law of John the Good, who wished to mount the throne; secondly, that of the peasants against the lords, a war called the Jaquerie; thirdly, that of the Orleans or Armagnac party and the Burgundians, rival French factions, under Charles VI; fourthly, that of the Protestants and Catholics, under Francis II, Charles IX, and Henry III; the conspiracy of Amboise, under Francis II, and the massacre of the Protestants on Saint

By what remarkable means were the fortunes of France in those wars at length changed?

What were her successes and reverses in the Italian wars?

—In the Austrian?

How was France affected by her civil wars at this time? Can you name the parties to these internal feuds?

What deplorable consequences of the contest between Protestants and Catholics?

Bartholomew's day (1572), under Charles IX, were its

most unhappy consequences.

But the reign of the branch of Valois still offers events which in some sort redeem the evils which we have just pointed out.

We remark here:

First, the fixing of the majority of the king to 14

years of age, under Charles V (XIV century);

Secondly, certain discoveries which induced a complete revolution in the human mind, such as that of artillery, under Philip VI; printing, under Charles VII; the discovery of America, and the passage to the Indies, under Charles VIII; and the letter-post, under Louis XI;

Thirdly, the regeneration of the arts and sciences. particularly under Francis I, and the uninterrupted chain

of French writers, beginning from that time.

The Bourbons. This family is the most ancient of Europe; it reigns over many countries, and presents the greatest, and the best sovereign of France, Henry IV! For the 248 years that it has occupied the throne of France, glorious events have been mingled with fearful reverses, and a terrible catastrophe has just given to the world a grand example of the frailty of human greatness, as well as of the crimes which may be produced by a revolution, whatever be the happy consequences which are to spring from it. We shall only cast a glance at the kings of this branch. We notice here:

First, Henry IV (1589), the father of his people: he introduced order and economy into the finances, in concert with Sully, a minister worthy of himself; at the moment when he was preparing to humble the house of Austria he was assassinated by a monster called Ravail-

lac (1610).

What are some of the redeeming features of this period and dynasty?-What is said of the Beurbens? What is said of Henry IV?

Secondly, Louis XIII: he suffered to reign in his place the minister Richelieu, a man of genius, who humbled the house of Austria, diminished the power of the grandees, wrested Rochelle from the Protestants, and

prepared, by the foundation of the French Academy, the age of Louis XIV (1610 to 1643).

Thirdly, Louis XIV, whose reign of 72 years was rendered illustrious by every kind of glory which usually surrounds the thrones of monarchs. His minority was stormy; the regency of Ann of Austria, his mother, and the ministry of Mazarin, caused the war of the Fronde, that is to say, a civil war between the parliament and the court. His riper age was brilliant: the king then governed by himself; his minister Colbert caused the sciences, arts and commerce to flourish, while Louis XIV astonished Europe by his victories in Flanders, Holland, &c. His old age was unfortunate; the succession of Spain, the defeats of Malplaquet and Ramillies, battles gained by Marlborough, the English general, and by prince Eugene, general of the Imperialists, placed France in a critical situation. Louis XIV died, leaving the pub-

lic treasury indebted to an enormous amount (1715).

Fourthly, Louis XV, great-grandson of Louis XIV, whose infancy was confided to Philip of Orleans, an amiable, brave and politic prince, but immoral. The financial system of a Scotchman called Law added still more to the critical position of the treasury. The war of the Austrian succession displayed the splendor of France at Fontenay, a victory due to Marshal Saxe; but the seven years' war was unfortunate for the French, who had to combat the English and the Prussians, and were completely beaten at Rosbach; these disasters and the exhaustion of the finances already presaged a general commotion (1774).

What is said of Louis XIII?—Of Louis XIV?—His minority?—His riper age?—His old age?—Of Louis XV?

Fifthly, Louis XVI, the grand son of Louis XV; he was not able to avoid the most terrible of revolutions the way for which had been prepared under his two predecessors. His wisdom, his virtues, his salutary reforms, all were useless; he died a victim to the fury of parties, whom his too great gentleness could not control. He was beheaded at Paris the 21st. of January, 1793.

Sixthly, the French republic, founded in 1792, lasted till 1804; it was replete with unheard of excesses, with unexampled atrocities, and also with deeds of virtue, courage, patriotism, worthy of a great crisis and a great nation, under the Convention, the Directory, and the Con-

sulate.

Seventhly, the French empire: a new dynasty, that of Napoleon, occupied the throne of the French until the 10th of April 1814. During his reign France was the first power of Europe, and the world; the continual victories of the French, the numerous ameliorations in their laws, the prosperous state of their commerce, the brilliant cultivation of the arts, caused the ambition of the chief of the state to be almost forgotten; frightful reverses, however, brought foreign troops into the very capital of France. Napoleon fell twice, and the Bourbons twice ascended the throne of Saint Louis (1814). The battle of Waterloo, lost by the French, put an end to the wars of Europe (1815).

Eighthly, the peaceable reign of Louis XVIII, from 1815 to 1824, repaired the ills of France. A constitutional charter guarantied the rights of the French. It was because the ministers of Charles X did not respect it that the elder branch of the Bourbons ceased to reign. The French people, after the revolution of the 27th. 28th.

What is said of Louis XVI ?—Of the French republic ?— The Empire ?—What is said of the reign of Louis XVIII ? Why did the elder branch of the Beurbons cease to reign?

and 29th of July, 1830, gave the crown to Louis Philippe of Orleans, a descendent of Henry IV, now reigning (1847).

General View of the History of France.

We have seen, after the fall of the empire of Rome, the Roman element combining with other elements introduced by the barbarians during the entire duration of the first two dynasties, to produce under the third, the feudal regimen, a veritable transition between the ancient revolution of France and modern civilization.

In the first period, every thing is *individual*: the will, force, free choice, belong to the individual man in property, and contribute to his moral developement.

In the second, it is no longer the individual man acting upon himself, it is the labor of society tending to its formation.

All the rest of the history of France is only the result of these two sorts of actions, sometimes operating simultaneously, sometimes apart, frequently slow and insensible in their progresss; ometimes, also, rapid and accelerated. This is what we call the social movement.

An indisputable truth results from the exhibition of the facts which have passed beneath our view; it is, that in history generally, men are only the representatives of the ideas or the tendencies of their epoch. In fact, in descending from the first French dynasty to our own

To whom did the French give the crown after the revolution of the Three Days?

What was the origin of the feudal regimen?

How may the first period of French history be characterised?

What is the character of the second?

Of what is the remainder of French history the result? What truth may be inferred from the facts reviewed?

days, we recognise in Clovis the type of barbarian royalty; in Charlemagne, that of the imperial royalty, and of the need of that stability, the production of which was the labor of the entire middle age.

Hugh Capet appears to us as the representative of that feulalism which was the only possible intermedium be-

tween the ancient world and modern Europe.

Philip Augustus, Saint Louis, and Philip the Fair, exactly represent the first efforts which were made to concentrate the social movement, divided as it was into a multitude of local societies, without union and without harmony.

Stephen Marcel, Philip of Artevelde, Joan of Arc, and Luther himself, are symbols characteristic of the general

spirit of the epoch to which they belong.

The union of absolute power and of modern policy is represented, for the first time, by Louis XI, whose antaggonist, Charles the Rash, is the true type of the chivalrous ambition of the feudal lords, and of their improvident policy.

Under Charles VIII, when the grandees, disappointed of their territorial power, aspired to achieve a moral power which should associate them with the sovereign power, it was the duke of Orleans (afterward Louis XII) who personified the struggle of the nobility against the royalty of France.

During the religious wars the Guises, as well as the princes of Bourbon, endeavored to secure to themselves the inheritance of the house of Valois, whose decay was manifest: the two parties sought a support in the strength of the people, put in action by the religious irritation of

How is this truth illustrated in the histories of Clovis, Charlemagne, and Hugh Capet?

Of Philip Augustus, Saint Louis, and Philip the Fair?
Of Stephen Marcel, Philip de Artevelde, Joan of Arc, and
Luther?—Of Louis X1?—Charles VIII?—Of the Guises?

the time. This is again the faction of the grandees struggling against royalty.

The Marshal de Biron, under Henry IV, renewed the

same pretensions, and atoned for them with his head.

The struggle of Richelieu against the higher nobility continues the combat of the monarchy against the traditions of the feudal aristocracy.

In the war of the *Fronde*, on the contrary, the power of the grandees acts no longer, except as a *secondary cause*; it is the *popular spirit*, favored by the resistance of parliaments, which begins to render manifest a need of reform in the *constitution* of the *monarchy*.

Louis XIV, the representative of pure royalty, the only form of government which had not yet been tried among the French, does nothing but collect and improve, for his own profit, the fruit of the victories of Richelieu over the higher nobility, and of Mazarin over the spirit of reform.

But at the death of that prince, the void left by the ruin of the ancient institutions, which he had concealed by the energy of his reign, shows itself openly; the ancient monarchy finds itself in contact with a new and vivacious state of society, which it can neither restrain nor direct. The movement has passed from the government to the nation.

The whole reign of Louis XV, in which the symptoms of an approaching dissolution of the monarchy are no longer equivocal, is only the ebullition of that superabundance of social and national life which overflowed on all sides.

Mirabeau, with his vices and his passions, is the faithful representative of that overflowing vitality which it

How is this truth illustrated in the history of Marshal de Biron?—Of Richlieu?—Of the Fronde?—Of Louis XIV?—Of Louis XV?—Of Mirabeau?

would have been his perhaps to master, if he had lived. If it be permitted us, in finishing this review, to cast a rapid glance over the events which followed, a period too recent for us to venture to enter upon it in detail, we should say that the greatest man of modern times, Napoleon, the gigantic child of the revolution, mistook the character of his age when he turned the activity of the national spirit of France towards military glory; that the restoration of the Bourbons, which did not favor this irrepressible advance of the social movement, was carried away by it, and that finally, at the epoch which we have reached, the science of government consists in seconding, but at the same time directing towards useful results, the existing tendency of the human mind.

LOMBARDS.

The Lombards established themselves, in the VI century, under the conduct of Alboin, in the northern part of Italy, called by the Romans Cisalpine Gaul: their kingdom consequently comprised the duchies of Milan, Parma, and Modena, the marches of Trevisa and Vicenza, and in fine the eastern part of Piedmont. The Lombard kings attempted to conquer Italy: Luitprand, one of those kings, augmented his territory at the expense of the pope and the emperor; but Pepin the Short, king of France, recaptured the exarchate of Ravenna under Astolphus. Charlemagne overturned the kingdom of the Lombards, and placed upon his head the iron crown, after having beaten and made prisoner their king Didier, in 774.

Of Napoleon?—Of the Bourbons after the restoration?
In what does the science of government now consist?
Where did the Lombards establish themselves in the VI century?—What territories did their kingdom include?
What is said of the Lombard kings?—Of Luitprand?
Who took from them the exarchate of Ravenna?
Who overturned their kingdom?—And when?

Lombardy then became a dependency of the French empire. In consequence of the wars of Italy, Germany, and France, the cities of Lombardy constituted themselves so many autocratic republics, such as those of Milan, Padua, Modena, &c.

In 1805, a new kingdom of Lombardy was erected by Bonaparte, and the prince Eugene Beauliarnois was called to govern it. After a duration of ten years this new state fell, and since 1815, by the stipulations of the congress of Vienna, ancient Lombardy forms, together with the state of Venice, one of the great fiefs of the Austrian monarchy, under the name of the Lombardo Venitian kingdom.

SPANIARDS.

The Phenicians, the Carthaginians, and the Romans, successively occupied Spain until the time of the invasion of the German nations. Then the Alani, the Suevi, and the Vandals subdued that country, and were in turn vanquished by the Visigoths, who established themselves there and founded a kingdom in 584. Leovigild appears to have been their first king.

The monarchy of the Visigoths extended as far as the south of France, and became powerful and formidable. Meanwhile, in the VIII century (712), the Arabs of Spain, who are also called Saracens and Moors, conducted by a Spanish count named Julian, whom the king of the Visi-

Into what did the kingdoms of Lombardy next constitute themselves?

What is said of the new kingdom of Lombardy?

How long did it continue?

How was Lombardy disposed of by the congress of Vienna? What nations successively subdued and occupied Spain? Who was the first king of Visigothic Spain? How far did the Visigothic monarchy extend?

What is said of its power?

What occasioned the Saracenic invasion?

goths, Roderic, had affronted, passed over from Mauritania into Spain, and won the famous victory of Xeres. Roderic lost in that battle his throne and his life.

In less than five months three-fourths of Spain were subject to the Moors; nothing remained but the mountains of the Asturias, in which the Visigothic lords had taken refuge under the conduct of Pelayo, a prince of the blood royal.

By slow degrees the Visigoths descended from their mountains; and in spite of the efforts of the Moors, who were divided among themselves, they founded several kingdoms, such as those of Leon, Castile, Arragon, and Navarre.

In the XV century (1474), the states of Arragon and those of Castile were united by the marriage of Ferdinand V of Arragon and Isabella of Castile, who drove out the Moors in 1492, established the *inquisition*, and reigned over the whole of christian Spain, reunited into a single empire.

The discovery of America, at the same epoch, caused Spain to perform a preponderating part in Europe.

The family of Austria succeeded to that of Arragon and Castile, by the accession of Philip the Fair, archduke of Austria, son of the emperor Maximilian, who had married Jane the Foolish, daughter of Isabella and Ferdinand V the Catholic.

Spain became powerful and formidable under this family, in which we notice:

What took place at the battle of Xeres?

What is said of the progress of the Moors in Spain?

How were they opposed by the Visigoths!

How and when were the states of Arragon and Castile united?

What were the results of that union?

What was the effect on Spain of the discovery of America?
How did the family of Austria succeed to that of Arragon and
Castile?

What was the condition of Spain under that family?

Charles Fifth, born at Gand in 1500. He became king of Spain in 1516, and emperor of Germany in 1519. He made Francis I, king of France, prisoner at the battle of Pavia, led an unfortunate expedition into Africa against the corsair Barberossa, and was obliged to grant liberty of conscience to the Protestants of Germany. He abdicated the crown of Spain in favor of his son, Philip II, and that of Germany in favor of his brother, Ferdinand. He retired to the convent of Saint Just, where he died, in 1558, after having solemnized beforehand his own funeral rites.

Philip II, son of Charles Fifth, surnamed the Dæmon of the South, because of his cruelty; he espoused Mary, queen of England; sent against Elizabeth a large flotilla, the Invincible Armada, which was destroyed by a tempest; gained over Henry II, king of France, the famous battle of Saint Quentin; acquired the kingdom of Portugal and lost the Low Countries; and finally died in 1598, with the reputation of a good politician, but of an ambitious and sanguinary prince.

Philip III, who banished the Moors entirely from Spain; the duke of Lerma was his minister. Philip IV,

who lost Portugal; Olivares was his minister.

Charles II, a prince feeble in mind and body; with him ended the Austrian-spanish house. He left the throne to Philip of Anjou, grandson of Louis XIV (1700).

THE BOURBONS.

The accession of *Philip V* to the throne gave rise to the war of the *Spanish succession*. The house of German Austria, which beheld itself excluded, leagued with England against Philip. *Louis XIV* took the part of his

What account is given of Charles Fifth?—Of Philip II!—Of Philip IV?—Of Charles II!
What account is given of the Bourbons and of Philip V?

grandson and by that means nearly destroyed France. After reverses without number, the duke of Vendome gained the battle of Villa Viciosa, which led, in 1713, to the treaty of Utrecht and the acknowledgment of Philip V.

That prince effected the conquest of the kingdom of Naples and Sicily in favor of his son Don Carlos. The cardinal Alberoni was his minister. His two sons, Ferdinand VI and Charles III (Don Carlos) successively mounted the throne; both re-established the marine, encouraged the arts and sciences, and protected commerce. In 1788 Charles IV was crowned on the death of his father, Charles III. He was a feeble prince; but it should not be forgotten that he undertook the defence of Louis XVI. In 1806, Napoleon forced him to abdicate in favor of his son, Ferdinand VII, and the latter, in favor of Joseph, brother of the French Emperor. Charles was detained a prisoner at Marseilles and Ferdinand at Valançay: the first died at Rome, and the second re-ascended the throne of Spain in 1814. He died the 29th of Sept. 1833; his daughter, Isabella II, succeeded him, and is now (1847) upon the throne.

ARABS.

The Scriptures represent the Arabs as descending from Islimael, the son of Hagar and Abraham; some of them led a wandering life, others had fixed residences. They could not be subdued by the Romans before the empe-

What conquest did he make in favor of Don Carlos? What is said of Ferdinand VI and Charles III? What is said of Charles IV? To what did Napoleon compel him? What was his subsequent fate and that of his son? Who succeeded Ferdinand?

From whom are the Arabs supposed to have descended?

What were their early habits and character?

ror Trajan, who conquered them (I century after Jesus Christ). They had thrown off the yoke of Rome again, when *Mahomet* appeared, and they made of Arabia the centre of his superstitions and his conquests (VII century). In 622 that legislator fled from Mecca to Medina, where he founded the religion which bears his name. This epoch is called the *Hegira*, or flight: it is the era of the Mahometaus.

His successors were called califs, or vicars: it was under their reign that the Arabs, called also Saracens, invaded Asia, Africa, and a part of Europe; Spain became their conquest, and France would have fallen a prey to them but for the valor of Charles Martel, who conquered them at Tours in the VIII century.

Many families of the califs governed the Arabians; the most celebrated are the *Ommiades* and the *Abassides*; the latter especially rendered illustrious at Bagdad the glory of their name and their throne. *Haroun-al-Raschid*, or the Just, and *Al-Maimoun*, his son, cotemporaries of Charlemagne, protected the arts and sciences.

The Arabs, while Europe was yet in a state of ignorance, invented Algebra and arithmetical figures, and discovered the first principles of chemistry and astronomy; but the revolutions of Asia and Europe destroyed their empire, and the descendants of the instructors of the then known world give proofs of their existence at the present

When and by whom were they first subdued?
What was their condition when Mahomet appeared?
What is said of him?
When did the Hegira take place?
Who were Mahomet's successors?
What memorable invasion took place under their auspices?
What two families of the califs were most celebrated?
What is said of Haroun al Raschid and Al Maimoun?
What scientific improvements were made by the Arabs?
How was their empire destroyed?

day, under the name of Bedouins, only by the pillage of caravans.

MOORS.

The Moors appear to have descended from the Mauritanians and Numidians, mingled with the Phenicians, Romans, Berbers, and Arabs; they had in part embraced christianity, introduced into their country by the Vandals, when they were subdued by the Saracens. When the latter entered into Spain in the VIII century (712), a great number of Moors accompanied them, and the name of the latter was alone in use to designate the Mahometan rulers of the Peninsula.

The Moors were masters of Spain during nearly eight centuries (from 712 to 1492). When Abdheraman, having escaped from the massacre of the Ommiades, appeared in Spain, they acknowledged him for king in 755. Cordova was the capital of the kingdom of the Moors, and became as famous as Bagdad. The arts flourished there, the manners of the people were polished, the magnificence of the Moorish kings became celebrated, and the reign of Abdheraman III, in the X century, offers the attractive spectacle of all that the imagination can figure to itself of opulence in the cities, splendor in the palaces, in fine, of everything that the developement of modern civilization has introduced of elegance and urbanity in our usages, while the rest of Europe was yet plunged in barbarism.

How are they represented at the present day?
From whom do the Moors appear to have descended?
What was their religious state when subdued by the Saracens?—Did they accompany the Saracens into Spain?
How long did they continue masters of that country?

Whom did they acknowledge for king in 755? What city was their capital?

What is said of the reign of Abdheraman III?

But the intestine divisions of the Moors caused their destruction; the capture of Grenada, in 1492, by Gonzalvo de Cordova, from Boabdil, their last king, put an end to their dominion. Forced to give way, they purchased, by the weight of gold, the permission to retire into Africa. Their expulsion was an important loss to agriculture and the arts.

SWEDES.

The origin of the Swedes is unknown; the existence of the famous Odin, to whom extraordinary facts are attributed, is only fabulous. Biorne, one of their first kings (IX century), is regarded by some historians as the veritable founder of their monarchy; but it is only in the XII century that the history of this country begins to present some certainty: then Eric, called the Saint, established there the catholic religion.

In the XIV century Margaret Waldemar, called the Semiramis of the North, united, under the same sceptre, Norway, Denmark, and Sweden, in 1383.

The assembly or dict of Colmar ratified, in 1397, this reunion of the three Scandinavian kingdoms, which subsisted until 1521.

Sweden then grouned under the tyranny of Christiern II; but Gustavus Vasa, the only scion of the kings of Sweden, after having remained many years proscribed, and

What caused the destruction of the Moorish kingdom?

Was their exclusion from Spain an injury to civilization?
What is said of the origin of the Swedes, and of Oden?—
Of Biorne?

When does the History of Sweden become more satisfactory? Who established there the Roman catholic religion?

What important union took place under Margaret of Waldemar?—What was done at the diet of Calmar?

What was the state of Sweden in 1521?

What is said of Gustavus Vasa?

a fugitive in the mines of Dalccarlia, put himself at the head of a party of mountaineers, and succeeded in driving out the usurper Christiern in 1523. From that epoch to our own days, three families have governed Sweden: first, that of Vasa; secondly, that of Deux Ponts; thirdly, that of Holstein Eutin. The first king was that same Gustavus Vasa, the true founder of Sweden, in 1523; he established Lutheranism in his dominions. We notice, also, Gustavus Adolphus, surnamed the Great (1611), who made Austria tremble in the thirty years' war, and died at the battle of Lutzen (1632). Christina, a woman of great genius, but of a light and trifling character, abdicated in favor of her cousin Charles Gustavus (1654).

The family of Deux Ponts, whose first king was Charles X (1654). His reign was a succession of warlike exploits; he made the North tremble. We remark here Charles XI (1660), whose minority was marked by internal agitations. Charles XII, surnamed the Alexander of the North (1697), gained the victories of Narva and Riga over Russia, Poland, and Denmark, was beaten at Pultawa (1709) by Peter the Great, emperor of Russia, retired to Bender, in Bessarabia, and perished at the siege of Fredrickshall, in 1718, where he was struck with a cannon ball: he was thirty-six years of age when he died. Ulrica Eleonora, his sister, associated to the throne her husband, Frederic of Hesse.

The house of *Holstein-Eatin* gave to Sweden, for king, Adolphus Frederic (1751), under whom internal troubles took place, such as those of the *bonnets* and the *caps*.

We notice here Gustavus III, an amiable prince and a great king, who in 1772 overturned the constitution of

What families have governed Sweden since that epoch? Who introduced Lutheranism into Sweden?

What is said of Gustavus Adolphus?—Of Christina?—Of Charles X?—Of Charles XI?—Of Charles XII?—Of Ulrica Eleonora?—Of Adolphus Frederic?—Of Gustavus III?

Ulrica, restored to the throne its authority, and to the Swedes repose and their political influence: he was assassinated at a ball in 1792.

Gustavus IV Adolphus, his son, who was then only fourteen years of age, succeeded him under the regency of the duke of *Sudermania*, his uncle, afterward Charles XIII. In 1809 he was constrained to abdicate the crown.

Charles XIII, finding himself without a direct heir, adopted at first the prince Christian Augustus of Schlesburg Holstein; but the latter having died suddenly on the 21^{st.} of August, 1810, the diet of *Orebro* chose, to fill his place, Marshal *Bernadotte*, prince of *Ponte Corvo*, a Frenchman, who was adopted by the king under the name of Charles John, and who mounted the throne at the death of Charles XIII, which happened on the 5^{th.} of February 1818. The present king of Sweden is Oscar I. He ascended the throne the 8^{th.} of March, 1844.

NORWEGIANS.

It was from Norway that swarm of people called Normans, Danes, and Scandinavians issued, who immortalised themselves by conquests in France, in England, and even in Italy and Greece. Olaus, called the Saint, established christianity in Norway in the IX century. The first movements of the reformation made themselves felt there about 1528; it was established in that country in 1537, and from that time Lutheranism has been the prevailing religion.

Haguin, having espoused Margaret of Waldemar, became king of Norway and of Denmark, and at his death he left his wife upon this double throne. Afterward, the

What is said of the Norwegian migrations?—Of Olaus?—Of the reformation in Norway?—Of Haguin and Margaret of Waldemar?

What is said of Gustavus IV ?—Of Charles XIII?—Christians Augustus?—Of Marshal Bernadotte?—Of Oscar I?
What is said of the Norwegian migrations?—Of Olaus?—

two crowns remained united until 1814, the epoch at which Norway was reunited to Sweden by the treaty of Kicl. The Norwegians at first opposed the union: they established over themselves a king of their own; but they were obliged to give way. At the present day Norway, although governed by the same king as Sweden, forms a distinct State, to which its constitution and laws are preserved.

THE ENGLISH.

In the first five centuries the Celts are seen to occupy Great Britain; their government, their religion, their druids, their manners were the same as the Gauls. In the I century the Britons were conquered by the Romans under Julius Cæsar, and, after having been during four centuries subject to the dominion of that poople, they were laid waste by the Picts and the Caledonians, and invited the aid of the Angles and the Saxons, German nations, who got possession of their country, and forced them to take refuge in the mountains of the country of Wales, or to emigrate into Armoric Gaul. The Angles and the Saxons founded the Heptarchy, that is to say, seven governments, which were all united in 827 under the dominion of Egbert, king of Wessex.

Nine families have reigned over England:

First. That of the Anglo-Saxons, whose first king is Egbert, in the IX century (827).

When was Norway reunited to Sweden? How was this union at first relished by the Norwegians? What is the political constitution of Norway at present?

What is the pointed constitution of Norway at present?
What points of resemblance between the Celts of Britain and the Gauis?—What is said of the Roman conquest?—Of the incursions of the Picts and Caledonians?—Of the introduction into Britain of the Angles and Saxons?—Of the Heptarchy?

How many families have reigned over England? Who was the first king of the Anglo-Saxon house? Secondly. That of the Danes, whose first king is Sueno I, XI century (1014).

Thirdly. That of the Normans, whose first king is Wil-

liam the Conqueror, XI century (1066).

Fourthly. That of the *Plantagenets* or *Angevines*, whose first king is Henry II, XII century (1154).

Fifthly. That of the Lancasters, whose first king is

Henry IV, XIV century (1399).

Sixthly. That of York, whose first king is Edward IV, XV century (1461).

Seventhly. That of the Tudors, whose first king is

Henry VII, XV century (1603).

Eighthly. That of the Stuarts, whose first king is James I, XVII century (1603).

Ninthly. That of Brunswick, whose first king is George

I, XVIII century (1714).

In the Saxon Family we notice Alfred the Great, a virtuous prince, a warrior and a lawgiver; he founded the university of Oxford,

In the Danish House, Canute the Great, a prince worthy of a better age: he conquered Norway, retired into

a monastery and died.

In the Norman Family: first, William the Conqueror, who gained over Harold, his competitor, the battle of Hastings (1066); he made a revolution in the laws, property and language of England: this prince introduced into that country the feudal system; secondly, Henry I, son of William, who established in his dominion uniformity of weights and measures: he signed a charter which granted certain important privileges to the nation. He was surnamed Beau Clerc, because he was learned.

Who was the first king of the Danish house?—Of the Norman?—Of the Plantagenets?—Of the Lancasters?—Of the House of York?—Of the Tudors?—Of the Stuarts?—Of Brunswick?—What is said of Alfred the Great?—Of Canute the Great?—Of William the Conqueror?—Of Henry I?

In the House of the Plantagenets, Henry II, then the most powerful prince of Europe; Eleonor of Guyenne, the divorced wife of Louis VII, brought to him in dowry a great number of provinces. The tranquility of this prince was troubled by domestic quarrels, by the revolt of his sons and by the murder of the archbishop of Canterbury, Thomas á Becket; chagrin shortened his days (1189). Richard Cour de Lion, the hero of the third crusade, celebrated by his misfortunes and his romantic character; he was detained prisoner by Henry VI, king of Germany, and died at the siege of the castle of Chalus, in the Limousin (1199). John Lackland, who was obliged to sign for the barons that charter which the English regard as the palladium of their liberty. Edward III, so famous in the annals of France: he vanquished Philip VI at Crecy, and John the Good at Poitiers, by the arms of his son, the Black Prince; he had as prisoners the count of Blois, the king of Scotland and the king of France (1399).

In the Branch of Lancaster Henry V, whose youth was licentious, but whose reign was brilliant; he beheld himself master of France by the battle of Agincourt and by the treaty of Troyes (1420), Henry VI, who beheld taken from him his crown, and who lost his life, notwithstanding the heroic courage of Margaret of Anjou, his wife: under his reign England was rent asunder by the factions of the Red Rose and the White (1461).

In the *House* of *York*, *Richard III*, who has left an odious memory: he caused his two nephews to be strangled. Still, certain historians have sought to repel the imputation of those crimes with which he is reproached.

In the Family of the Tudors, Henry VII, surnamed

What is said of Henry II?—Of Richard the Lion-hearted?—Of John Lackland?—Of Edward III?—Of Henry V?—Of Henry VI?—Of Richard III?—Of Henry VII?

the Solomon of England; Henry VIII, whose reign is celebrated by the separation of the English Church from Rome: he had six wives, almost the whole of whom he put to death. Mary, his daughter, of a cruel and jealous character, sacrificed the virtuous and accomplished Jane Grey, re-established the Catholic religion, and delivered to the flames a great number of persons of the reformed faith: she married Philip II, king of Spain. Elizabeth, whose brilliant and glorious reign is soiled by the execution of Mary Stuart: she defeated the great armada of Philip II. The counts of Leicester and Essex were her

favorites (1603).

In the Family of the Stuarts, James I, the son of Mary Stuart, a weak prince, who occupied himself with nothing but theology: under him the gunpowder plot took place. Charles I, whose head was brought to the scaffold; he was replaced by Oliver Cromwell, who reigned with glory under the title of protector. Charles II, whom General Monk was the means of restoring to the throne; this prince distinguished himself only by his wit and his taste for pleasure: it has been affirmed of him that he never said a foolish thing or did a wise one. James II, who did not know how to make himself loved by his people; he re-established Catholicism, and by his arbitrary actions was obliged to fly into France (1688). William III of Nassau, the repeatedly successful rival of Louis XIV: under his reign and that of Anne, the marvellous mechanism of the English constitution was completed and fixed, the influence of the commons, the concurrence of the peers and the independence of the crown were finally secured and harmonized.

What account is given of Henry VIII!—Of Mary?—Of Elizabeth?—Of James I?—Of Charles I?—Of Oliver Cromwell?—Of Charles II?—Of James II!—Of William III of Nassau?—Of Anne?

In the House of Brunswick, George II, who declared himself for Maria Theresa in the war of the Austrian succession; he was beaten at Fontenoi; he defeated the pretender Charles at Culloden: his minister was William Pitt, lord Chatham. George III, whose reign was filled with great events which pertain to the history of Europe, Asia and America. Under him England lost her American colonies in 1783. George IV, at first regent during the derangement of his father; Wellington, his general, defeated the French at Waterloo. Bonaparte confided himself in vain to the generosity of George; he was exiled to the island of Saint Helena, where he died in 1821. Victoria I is at present on the throne of Great Britain.

SCOTCH.

The Scotch were formerly called Calcdonians; in the V century they invaded the territory of the Britons; they maintained their independence against the devices of their own kings, the series of whom was interrupted by Edward I, king of England (XIII century), who tried to bring about the union of the two kingdoms; but Scotland recovered her liberty under Robert Bruce. The crown passed afterward, in 1371, to the family of the Stuarts, of which all the kings died miserably. Mary Stuart, detained in captivity during eighteen years by Elizabeth, queen of England, was finally beheaded in 1587: James VI, her son, being mounted on the throne

What account is given of George II?—Of George III?—Of George IV?—Of Victoria I?

What did the Scotch do in the V century? Against whom did they maintain their independence? By whom was the series of their kings interrupted? Under whom did Scotland recover her liberty? To whom did her crown afterward pass?

What is said of the Stuarts in general ?-Of Mary Stuart?-Of James VI?

of England, the two crowns were united on his head and, after many disturbances, they were finally blended in one.

IRELAND.

The Irish, whose origin is obscure, were governed by their own kings until 1172, when Henry II Plantagenet, king of England, profiting by the disturbances which had arisen among them, seized upon that kingdom and invested with it his son, John Lackland; the latter united it to England in 1199.

But revolutions rent this country; it was not entirely

subdued until towards the end of the XVI century.

Ireland had its own parliament until 1801, the epoch at which it was united to Great Britain in spite of the liveliest opposition.

POLES.

The Poles are of Sarmatian origin; Lechus, the brother of the duke of Bohemia Zeck, is regarded as their founder; he lived in the middle of the VI century, and is supposed to have founded Gnesne; but the history of Poland does not begin to be interesting until Piast, in 842, who brought to the throne virtues which have rendered his memory dear to the Poles. In the middle of the XI century, Boleslas II crowned himself king of Poland. But the most celebrated family which has governed this country is that of the Jagellons; it occupied the

By whom were the Irish governed until 1172? Who then seized upon their kingdom? Whom did he invest with it?—How did John dispose of it? Was Ireland quiet under this arrangement? When was that country deprived of its parliament? When does the history of Poland begin to be interesting? What is said of Piast?—Of Boleslas?—Of the Jagellons?

throne during 186 years. The crown afterward became elective, and among the kings of that epoch, we remark:

First, Henry I, of Valois, brother of Charles IX, who fled precipitately from Cracovia, to cause himself to be consecrated king of France.

Secondly, John Casimir, who abdicated the throne in 1688; he left Poland and retired into France, where Louis XIV gave him the abbey of Saint Germain-des-Pres; he died at Nevers, without posterity (1672).

Thirdly, John Sobieski, who delivered Vienna when

besieged by the Turks (1683).

Fourthly, Stanislas I, Leckzinski, king by the protection of Charles XII; he was not able to sustain himself upon the throne, was obliged to fly, and went to reign in Lorraine, where his virtues endeared him to the inhabitants. His daughter Mary married Louis XV, king of France.

The elective government was the source of the continual misfortunes which afflicted Poland. She was successively dismembered by a three-fold division between Russia, Austria and Prussia. In 1795 she was entirely erased from the number of European governments. But, in 1830, she sought to recover her independence; during a long time her heroic courage succeeded in resisting the numerous army of Nicholas; but numbers prevailed, and Poland has returned under the dominion of Russia. Russia possesses at present the Duchy of Warsaw, which forms the vice-royalty of Poland.

After whom did the crown of Poland become elective?
What is said of Henry I?—Of John Casimir?—Of John Sobieski?—Of Stanislas I?

What was the source of the misfortune of Poland? How was she dismembered, and by whom?

When was her nationality destroyed? What effort did she make in 1830?

How did she succeed?

Who possesses the Duchy of Warsaw ?

RUSSIANS.

The Russians appear to be a mixture of Scythians, Huns, Cimbri, Getæ, Sarmatians, and other barbarous nations; the commencement of their history, then, is uncertain and not very interesting. Many families have governed them.

First, that of Rurick, founder of the Russian empire,

in the IX century (860).

Secondly, that of Wladimir, called the Great, who was converted to the christian faith by the Greeks, and received baptism; he is considered as the apostle and the Solomon of Russia, in the XI century (1015).

Thirdly, that of Ivan or John IV, the first Czar, in

1584.

Fourthly, that of *Michael Romanof*, in 1613. It was under this dynasty that Russia emerged from obscurity. Peter the Great, grandson of Michael, civilized his people, established a navy, built in a short time considerable forts and cities, vanquished Charles XII at Pultawa, and deserved the title of legislator and restorer of Russia; having mounted the throne in 1695, he died in 1725.

The reign of *Elizabeth*, his daughter, which lasted twenty years, also formed an epoch in the annals of that

country, (1741 to 1762).

At the death of this princess the family of Holstein-Gotthorp ascended the throne of Russia, in the person of Peter III, grandson of Peter the Great, and son of Charles Frederick, Duke of Holstein-Gotthorp, and Anne of Russia, elder daughter of Peter the Great (1762).

Peter soon lost his throne and his life, and left the

What is said of the early history of the Russians?
What is said of Rurick?—Of Wladimir?—Of John IV?—
Of Michael Romanof?—Of Peter the Great?—Of Elizabeth?
—Of Peter III?

crown to his wife, the celebrated Catharine II, (1762 to 1796). That princess made war with success upon Turkey and Sweden, and took to herself a part of the three divisions of Poland. Paul I, who succeeded her, joined the coalition against France, and ended by concluding peace with that kingdom; but having fallen the victim of a conspiracy in 1801, he had for his successor Alexander I, his son. That prince had to sustain a terrible war against the French, who carried their victorious arms to the very centre of his empire. The unbounded ambition of Napoleon and the climate of Russia rendered the Russians triumphant in the campaign of 1812, and Alexander led his soldiers to Paris. This prince died suddenly at Taganrok, Dec. 1st, 1825. The crown then fell, by the renunciation of Constantine, to Nicholas 1, his brother, now reigning (1847). His reign has been distinguished by his victories over the Turks, and by the Polish Revolution.

GERMANS.

The Germans, properly so called, inhabited, from the III century after J. C. the part of Germany since called Saabia. Clovis I, king of France (V century), vanquished them at Tolbiac, and annexed them to his vast empire. Charlemagne reduced them still more to obedience, by the victory of Paderborn, and rendered himself, moreover, master of Italy, after having made Didier, king of the Lombards, prisoner. Thus France, Germany and Italy constituted only one empire, and were subject to the same master, in the person of Charlemagne, who forms the stock of the Emperors of the West since 800.

What is said of Catharine II?—Of Paul I?—Of Alexander I?—Of Nicholas I?

Where have the Germans resided since the III century? What did Clovis I do to them?—And Charlemagne?

From the period of the dismemberment of the empire among the sons of Charlemagne, many German Lords rendered themselves independent. Such was the origin of the States of Germany, of which one retains the title of the Empire.

EMPIRE OF GERMANY.

In 912 the Germans shook off the yoke of the French and raised to the throne a king chosen among themselves; this is the commencement of the history of Germany, properly speaking. Among the dynasties which have governed Germany, of which the throne is elective, we shall notice:

First, the House of Franconia, whose first king was Conrad I, (X century) 912.

Secondly, the House of Saxony, (X century) whose first king was Henry the Fowler; this was a brilliant epoch. Otho the Great, (936) is the hero of that dynasty; he conquered Italy, made himself feared by his vassals, and assumed the title of Emperor, which has since remained to the supreme head of Germany.

Thirdly, the House of Salic Franconia, whose first king was Conrad II (1024). Under this house the kingdom of Arles, or of the two Burgundies, was incorporated with the empire; but Germany was rent asunder by the quarrels between the Emperor Henry IV, and the

What was the origin of the German States?

What revolution was effected by the Germans in 912?

Is the throne of Germany elective?
Who was the first king of the House of Franconia?—Of the House of Saxony?

Who is the hero of that dynasty? What is narrated of him?

Who was the first king of the House of Salic Franconia?

What additions were made to the empire under it? By what quarrel was Germany rent asunder?

Pope Gregory VII, on the subject of investitures. The lords profited by these dissensions, to render themselves independent.

Fourthly, the House of Suabia Hohenstauffen, whose first king is Conrad III, who took the cross with Louis VII, king of France (1137). During this period Italy entirely escaped from the imperial dominion; the number of independent princes increased, and the royal authority became, in fact, a nullity.

Among the kings of this family we notice: first, Frederic Barbarossa, who took the cross with Philip Augustus and Richard Cœur de Lion, and who died of a disease contracted in crossing the Cydnus; secondly, Henry VI, the Nero of Germany, who held Richard Cœur de Lion in captivity; thirdly, Frederic II, one of the greatest kings of Europe, famous for his wars and his quarrels with the Holy See; fourthly, Conrad IV, the last king of that branch, which became extinct in the person of the young and interesting Conradin. The king of Naples, Charles of Anjou, brother of Saint Louis, put this unhappy prince to death upon a scaffold, at the age of 17 years.

INTERREGNUM.

An interregnum of 23 years followed the death of Conrad IV. Several emperors were then chosen at once; numerous states rose in revolt; Italy and Germany achieved their revolution; a common bond united them all. The

How did the lords profit by these disturbances? Who was the first king of the House of Suabia Hohen-

Who was the first king of the House of Suabia Hohen stauffen?

What took place during his reign?
What is said of Frederic Barbarossa?—Of Henry VI?—
Of Frederic II?—Of Conrad IV?—Of Conradin?

What happened in Germany during the Interregnum?

diets or assemblies of the imperial courts were the springs of the Germanic body.

Finally, the electors conferred the supreme dignity on Rodolph of Hapsburg, in 1273; he was no more than a simple count; he vanquished Ottocar, king of Bohemia, and got possession of Austria, Styria, Carinthia, and Carniola.

Fifthly, The Family of Hapsburg was one of the most powerful and remarkable in Europe; it raised itself by matrimonial alliances, and was divided into two celebrated branches: first, that of Spanish Austria, begun by Charles V (1519), and extinquished in 1700, by the death of Charles II, king of Spain; secondly, that of German Austria, begun in the person of Ferdinand, brother of Charles V, in 1556, and extinguished in 1740, by the death of Charles VI.

In this interval the kings who are noticable are:

First, Albert of Austria, whose tyranny was the occasion of the independence of Switzerland, in 1308;

Secondly, Charles IV of Luxemburg, who dissipated the royal revenues and completed the limitation of the royal authority by the golden bull (1353);

Thirdly, Frederic III, an avaricious, unjust and ignorant prince, under whom the Turks established themselves in Europe, in 1453;

Fourthly, Maximilian (1493), who increased the power of the house of Austria by his marriage with Mary of Burgundy, daughter of Charles the Rash, and only heiress of the Low-Counties;

What is said of the diets of the imperial courts? Upon whom was the imperial dignity finally conferred? What are the achievements of Rodolph of Hapsburg? What is said of the family of Hapsburg? Into what two branches was it divided?

What is said of Albert I ?—Of Charles IV of Luxemburg ?—Of Frederic III ?—Of Maximilian ?

Fifthly, Charles Fifth (1519), the most powerful monarch of his age, and rival of Francis I; he abdicated in 1556, and retired to the convent of Saint Just.

Sixthly, Ferdinand I, who fixed the imperial crown in

Bohemia and Hungary (1558).

Seventhly, Matthias Ferdinand III, under whom the thirty years' war took place, which was caused by the ambition of the house of Austria, from 1618 to 1648;

Eightly, Charles IV, who set about uniting Spain to the Empire a second time; the last male of his house, he left the throne to his daughter Maria Theresa, in 1780.

Ninthly, the House of Austro-Lorraine had for its first sovereigns Francis I, of Lorraine, grand-duke of Tuscany, and Maria Theresa; this family still reigns (1847) in the person of Ferdinand II, who came to the throne March 2nd, 1835.

The seven years' war, the dismemberment of Poland, the conquests of Bonaparte, which reduced Francis II to his hereditary States in 1806, and finally the coalitions against France, are the four great events which have taken place down to the present time in the history of this dynasty.

GERMANIC CONFEDERACY.

In 1806, all the princes of the south of Germany composed the confederation of the *Rhine*, which was replaced by the Germanic Confederacy established in 1814. In re-

What is said of Charles Fifth !-Of Ferdinand I !-Of Matthias Ferdinand III !-Of Charles VI !

Who were the first sovereigns of the House of Lorraine ?

Who is the present emperor?

What are the great events which have occured under this dynasty?

When was the Confederation of the Rhine formed?

By what was it replaced?

ference to more important objects, the diet forms itself into a general assembly, and Austria enjoys the presidency: the ordinary diets sit at Frankfort-on-the-Maine.

DANES.

Anciently, Denmark was divided into many petty sovereignties: each small island of that country had its king; Jutland had several of them. Zealand was the residence of the most powerful of these petty princes, who abandoned themselves to piracy, like the nations of the North in general.

The Danes made a great number of expeditions against Great Britain and France. They subdued a part of England and formed petty kingdoms in that country; as to France, they did nothing but pillage her and lay her

waste.

They were intrepid, and accustomed to live at sea; they practiced a gross worship, impressed nevertheless with a

certain savage grandeur.

In the X century christianity was introduced almost by force into Denmark; some time previously, king Gorm or Gormo possessed himself of the sovereignty, and reigned over a great part of what at the present day forms Denmark. Scania was one of his provinces; but Sleswick was taken from him by the emperors, of Germany and erected into a margraviate. On the other hand, Sueno, grandson of Gormo, conquered England; and his son Canute added to it the conquest of Norway, so that these three sceptres were in the hands of the latter prince.

How is the Germanic Confederacy constituted?

What was the ancient state of Denmark?
What account is given of the Danish expeditions against

England and France?

What is said of their early habits and religion?
When and how was Christianity introduced into Denmark?
What is said of King Gorm?—Of Sueno?—Of Canute?

From the XI century (1042), England had once more kings of her own, and, five years after, Norway was also lost to Denmark, which was rent asunder by intestine wars and enfeebled by the conflicts of monarchy and feudalism.

Waldemar I, restored, in the XII century, some lustre to the Danish power. The daughter of Waldemar III, Margaret, having espoused Haquin VIII, king of Norway, was regent of the two kingdoms, joined to them by conquest that of Sweden, and endeavored to consolidate this union of the three kingdoms of the North by the famous treaty of Calmar, in the XIV century. This union lasted scarcely half a century.

In the XV century (1448), Sweden was entirely detached from Denmark; in the same year, the ancient dynasty of the Shioldungian kings being extinct, the Danes raised to the throne Christian I, of the race of the counts of Oldenburg, who have reigned ever since; Christian was king of Denmark and Norway, and duke of Sleswick and Holstein: the latter duchy was afterward the appanage of another branch of the family, which preserved it until the XVIII century, an epoch when it returned to the domain of the kings of Denmark, by means of the session of the duchy of Oldenburg.

The religious reform under Luther was introduced, in the XVI century, into Denmark without much difficulty.

When were England and Norway lost to the Dancs? What was the state of Denmark itself at that time?

What is said of Waldemar I?—Of Margaret? How long did the union of Colmar last?

When was Sweden detached from Denmark?

What took place at the extinction of the Shioldungian dynasty?

Over what countries did Christian I, reign?

Through what vicissitudes has the duchy of Sleswick and Holstein passed?

When and how was the reformation introduced into Den mark?

At the commencement of the XIX contury (1867), the king of Denmark having refused to make common cause with England against the emperor of the French, who then ruled over the whole of the continent, Copenhagen was bombarded by the English, and the government forced to deliver up its entire military fleet; and as the Danes continued to adhere to the party of Napoleon, the powers allied to England at the peace of 1814 took Norway from Denmark in order to give it to Sweden, and granted the Danish sovereign, as a sort of indemnity, the German Duchy of Luxemburgh. The present monarch (1847) of Denmark is Christian VIII, who came to the throne December 3rd, 1839.

HUNGARIANS.

Hungary, formerly Pannonia, had been peopled originally by the Huns. It was afterwards subject to different nations; Charlemagne got possession of it in the VIII century.

About the end of the 1X century, other nations, who came from Asia, fixed themselves there; these were the

Hungarians.

Geisa was the first among the kings of Hungary who embraced christianity; Stephen, his son, succeeded him. Under the kings who followed, nothing but wars and rebellions are seen. The most remarkable are: Stephen II, a virtuous and brave prince (XII century); Andrew II, who put himself at the head of a crusade (XIII century); Andrew III, his grandson; Louis I, who joined to

Why was Copenhagen bombarded by the English in 1807? How did the allied powers deal with Denmark in 1814? Who is the reigning king of that country?

Who got possession of Hungary in the VIII century? Who fixed themselves there about the end of the IX?

What is said of Geisa?—Of Stephen?—Of Stepheu II?—Of Andrew II?—Of Louis I?

his warlike qualities prudence, generosity and the love of letters: at his death his daughter Mary was proclaimed queen; She associated to her power Sigismund, her husband, who became king of Bohemia and emperor (XV century).

During the minority of Ladislas V (XV century), the celebrated Corvinus, a noble Hungarian, son of John Huniades, made war against the Turks with the greatest success. Matthias Corvinus, his son, was elected at the

death of Ladislas, and reigned with glory.

Wars almost continual were caused by the ambition of the house of Austria, and by the resistance of the Hungarians (XVII century). Ferdinand, brother of Charles V, succeeded in causing the Hungarian crown to be declared hereditary in the house of Austria, and placed upon the head of his son, the archduke, who became emperor, under the name of Maximilian II, in 1568. The crown passed, after many agitations, to Charles IV, the father of Maria Theresa. That princess, at the death of her father, beheld several princes disputing her accession; The Hungarians remained faithful to her, and aided her in conquering (XVIII century) the throne.

The sequel of the history of Hungary is that of the em-

peror of Germany.

NEAPOLITANS.

The kingdom of Naples was subdued by the Romans from the earliest times of the republic.

What produced continual war in Hungary ?

What is said of Ferdinand?—Of Maximilian II?—Of Charles IV?—Of Maria Theresa?

With what history is that of Hungary from this time

Under what dominion was Naples at an early period?

What is said of Mary and Sigismund ?—Of Corvinus ?—Of Matthias Corvinus ?

In the V century it became the prey of the Goths, and afterward of the Lombards, who possessed it until the time of Charlemagne, who conquered them and seized their territory. The successors of that prince divided it with the Greek emperors, who by little and little rendered themselves completely masters of it.

The Saracens dispossessed them of it in the IX and X centuries, and rendered themselves very powerful there, until the epoch when the Normans took it from them.

In the XI century, Tancred of Hauteville, a Norman lord, perceiving that he had a numerous family, sent his two elder sons into Italy to seek their fortune. These two chevaliers, named William, who was also called the Iron-Arm, and Drogon, to whom one of their brothers, named Robert Guiscard, afterward joined himself, seconded by many other lords, undertook to make war upon the Saracens. Robert Guiscard, who rendered himself so illustrious, gained great advantages over them. He left two sons, of whom the one named Roger had as his portion Apulia and Calabria. Such was the beginning of the kingdom of Naples.

SICILIANS.

Sicily, the largest of all the islands of the Mediterranean, was at first called *Trinocria*, on account of its triangular figure.

The Sicanii, or people of Spain, in passing by that

Who seized upon it in the V century?

Who took it from them?

With whom did the successors of Charlemagne divide it? Did the Greek emperors finally obtain the whole of it?

Who took it from them?

Who from the Saracens?

What was the early name of Sicily?

What was the early name of Sicily?
What names were given it by the Sicanii and the Sicules?

island, gave it the name of Sicania; and the Siculi, a nation of Italy, who landed there after the Sicanii, changed its name into that of Sicily.

Sicily was peopled at different times by different Greek colonies.

The Carthaginians afterward occupied the larger part of it; but Syracuse, which was then the most powerful city of Sicily, was not under the dominion of Carthage; she had placed the sovereign authority in the hands of Gelon, after the victory which the latter won near Himera (to the south-west of Palermo), over the Carthaginians, commanded by Hamilcar. Hiero and Thrasybulus, the two brothers of Gelo, were placed successively upon the throne of Syracuse.

After 60 years of democracy, the two Dionysii, Timoleon and Agathocles, commanded in that city, and governed it, some as tyrants, others as good princes.

Sicily was for a long time the theatre of the war between the Carthaginians and the Romans; the latter remained peaceable possessors of it; it was their first conquest beyond the continent of Italy. In the decay of the Roman Empire, Sicily, like many other states, became the prey of the barbarians; it was invaded and pillaged by Genseric, king of the Vandals, in 439 and 440.

Belisarius re-took it in 554; but that conquest was not long retained by the emperors of the East.

By whom was it first peopled?

Who occupied the greater part of it after the Greeks?

Who governed Syracuse?

What is said of his victory over the Carthagenians?—Of his two brothers?

Who governed it after the democracy? Of what was it for a long time the theatre? What is said of the Roman possession of it? What befel it in the decline of the empire? Who re-captured it?

Was it long retained?

The Saracens captured it from them in 827, and their governors, who were called *emirs*, maintained themselves at Palermo until they were driven out by the Normans.

KINGDOM OF THE TWO SICILIES.

In 1074, Roger, one of the sons of Tancred, and uncle of Roger, the master of Naples, possessed himself of Sicily. At his death he left two sons, of whom the one, called Roger II, took possession of Apulia and Calabria after the death of William, a descendant of Robert Guiscard; so that the two kingdoms of Naples and Sicily were united in 1129, and took the name of the kingdom of the Two Sicilies. This state passed from the Norman princes to the imperial house of Suabia. Constance, the last princess, daughter of Roger, and heiress of the two kingdoms, brought them in marriage to Henry VI, son of the emperor Barbarossa.

The branch of Suabia being extinct in 1266, after the death of the bastard Manfred, its last possessor, the Pope Urban IV gave the investiture of the kingdom of the Two Sicilies to *Charles* of France, Count of Anjou, brother of Saint Louis, whose descendants possessed the

crown of Naples during 120 years.

It was under the reign of Charles of Anjou that the Sicilians massacred all the French at the hour of vespers on Easter Sunday, in 1282; this massacre is known by the name of the Sicilian Vespers.

In 1384, Jane I, the last scion of the first branch of Anjou, adopted by her testament Louis I, Duke of Anjou, son of King John. At the same time, Charles de Duras,

Who took it from the Emperor of the East ?—Who from the Saracens?

What is said of Roger?—Of Roger II? How did this state pass to the empire? To whom were the Sicilies given by Urban?—What is said of the Sicilian Yespers? cousin of that queen, established himself on the throne of Naples, a circumstance which occasioned between these two princes, and even between their successors, a protracted war. The posterity of the Count de Duras maintained themselves there, notwithstanding the pretensions of the successors of the Count of Anjou, who also bore the title of kings of Naples.

Jane II, the last princess of the blood of Duras, appointed for her heir René d'Anjou, a prince of the second branch of Anjou, the issue of King John, a fact which gave to the house a double right to that kingdom. René was not able to preserve it.

Alphonso, king of Arragon and Sicily, took it from him in 1442. From that time the two kingdoms of Naples and Sicily were re-united in one government.

The kings of Spain preserved it until 1707.

At that epoch the kingdom of the Two Sicilies was ceded by Philip V, king of Spain, to the house of Austria, in the person of Charles VI, the emperor, who lost it in 1734.

It was taken by Don Carlos, son of Philip V, to whom it was ceded by the treaty of Vienna, in 1736. That prince having been called to the throne of Spain in 1759, one of his sons succeeded him, under the name of Ferdinand IV. This last, after having been driven from his dominions in 1805, was re-established in his kingdom in 1814, by the aid of Austria, and recognized, by an article of the congress of Vienna, as king of the Two Sicilies. He died in 1826. His grandson, Ferdinand II, succeeded him Nov. 8th, 1830.

What is said of Jane II?

What is said of the Spanish Dominion?

What were the consequences of the testament of Jane I?

To whom were the Sicilies ceded by Philip V?
By whom was that kingdom re-taken?—Who succeeded him?—Through what vicissitudes did he pass?—Who was his successor?

PORTUGUESE.

In the V century the Suevi got possession, from the Romans, of the Spanish province called *Lusitania*. The Goths took it from the Suevi, and retained it until the VIII century, when the Moors took possession of it.

In the XI century, *Alphonso VI*, king of Leon and Castile, requested of Philip I, king of France, assistance against the Moors, who had invaded his dominions.

Henry of Burgundy, great-grandson of Robert I, and Raymond of Burgundy, offered their aid to the Spanish monarch, who gave to the first his natural daughter Theresa, with all the states which he could conquer from the Moors, from Porto to Guadiana, and his daughter Ura. qua to the second, that is to say, to Raymond.

Henry defeated the Saracens in seventeen battles, and gave to the country which he had conquered the name of Portugal (Portocalo); but his son, who rendered himself more famous than his father, is regarded as the first king of Portugal; this was Alphonso Henriquez. The Portuguese have been governed, down to our own time (1847), by three families:

First. That of Burgundy, whose first king was Alphonso Henriquez, XII century (1139).

Secondly. That of Avis, whose first king was John I, XIV century (1383).

Who took Lusitania from the Romans in the V century? Who took it from the Suevi?

How long did the Goths retain it? Who then took possession of it?

What negotiations between Alphonso VI and the Prince of Burgundy?

What is said of Henry ?-Of his son?

How many families have reigned in Portugal?

Who was the first king of the house of Burgundy?—Of the house of Avis?

Thirdly. That of Braganza, whose first king was John VI, XVII century (1640).

Between the two families last mentioned the Spaniards

governed Portugal during 60 years.

The family of Burgundy had for its head Alphonso Henriquez, who vanquished, in the plains of Ouriqua (Alentejo), five Moorish princes, from whom he took their five standards. It was in this century that the famous Roderigo Diaz lived, who was surnamed the Cid, that is to say, head or chief, on account of his valor (1139).

The principal successors of Alphouso:

Dionysius, who was justly called the father of his country, for he encouraged the arts, commerce and agriculture (1279).

Alphonso IV (XIV century), who ordered the assassination of Inez de Castro, mistress of his son, Peter the Justiciary. That young prince succeeded him; he caused Inez to be exhumed, crowned her, and transported her to the royal tomb, after having sacrificed her enemies (1325).

Under the family of Avis, we notice John I, natural son of Peter the Justiciary, who fixed the crown upon his head by the victory of Abjubarotta, and the memory of whom is still dear to the Portuguese (1385).

John II, his great-grandson, surnamed Augustus. It was he who refused to furnish vessels to Columbus (1481).

Emmanuel the Great (XV and XVI centuries), whose reign was the golden age of Portugal. Under this prince

Who was the first king of the house of Braganza? Who governed Portugal between the two last houses? What is said of the battle of Alentejo?—Of the Cid? Who were the principal suggessors of Alphonso?

Who were the principal successors of Alphonso?
Can you give the history of Dionysius?—Of Alphonso IV?
—Of Peter the Justiciary?—Of John II?—Of Emmanuel the Great?

Vasco de Gama doubled the cape of Good Hope; Alvarez Cabral discovered Brazil, and the general Albuquerque immortalized the Portuguese name in the Indies.

John III, son and successor of Emmanuel, established

the inquisition.

At the death of Henry the Cardinal, his brother (1580), many princes disputed with each other the throne of Portugal; the king of Spain, Philip II, obtained it by force of arms.

Under the Spanish dominion, the yoke of Spain and the tyranny of her kings became insupportable to the Portuguese, from whom the Hollanders took many places in Africa, the Indies and America.

Under the Family of Braganza, we notice:

First, John IV, surnamed the Fortunate. He owed the crown to the genius of his wife, Louisa de Guzman, whose regency, under the minority of Alphonso VI, was glorious for Portugal. The victory of Villaviciosa was the termination of the quarrel with the Spaniards, which for 28 years had agitated the two nations.

Secondly, *Peter II*, usurper of the throne of his brother (XVII century), whose wife, Mary of Nemours, he espoused. He enjoyed a firm and glorious reign, and took up arms against France, in the war of the Spanish succession, in 1700.

Thirdly, Joseph I, in whose reign the carthquake of Lisbon took place, in 1755. The Marquis of Pombal, his minister, is celebrated for the expulsion of the Jesuits; Joseph was assassinated in 1759; in 1762 the Spaniards made an invasion into Portugal, and were repulsed by the Count de La Lippe.

Can you give the history of John III?
How did Philip II obtain the throne of Portugal?
Was the Spanish dominion acceptable to the Portuguese?
What is said of John IV?—Of Peter II?—Of Joseph I?

Fourthly. Maria Frances Isabella, daughter of Joseph; she espoused her uncle. Peter III, to preserve the crown in the house of Braganza. During her illness, John, prince of Brazil, was regent of Portugal; he found himself obliged to retire to Brazil in 1807, at the approach of the French army, but their general, Mossena, could not retain Portugal, which returned under the power of the prince of Brazil.

Fifthly. John, at the death of his mother, 20th of March, 1816, acquired the title of king and the name of John VI. In Europe the reign of that prince was stormy; and, in America, Brazil declared itself independent. In Portugal two powerful parties shook the kingdom: the Constitutionals and the Absolutists, at whose head was found Don Miguel, son of the king, and of the queen mother, Charlotte of Spain. John VI died in 1826, and after his death Portugal was a prey to all the revolts which spring from the spirit of party. The usurpation of Don Miguel appeared to have put the finishing stroke to the misfortune of that country. Maria II is at present on the throne (1817), to which she came May 2nd, 1826.

BOHEMIANS.

Bohemia, to the west of Hungary, was originally peopled by a colony of the Boiæ, which left Gaul in the VI century, before J. C. to establish themselves in that country, and it was from this people it took its name.

The Marcomanni (a nation of Germany), drove out the Boiæ, and established themselves in the country which they had occupied.

Whence did Bohemia derive its name? Who drove out the Boiæ?

What is said of Maria Frances Isabella?—Of John as regent?—Of John as king?—Of Don Miguel?—Of Maria II?

Towards the end of the V century the Marcomanni were driven out in their turn by the Esclavonians, (a people who came from the environs of the Baltic Sea), whose chief was named Zeck. It was the latter who cleared up the country, then covered with forests.

The successors of Zeck are unknown, until after the year 632, at which time a virtuous princess reigned, called *Libussa*, who married *Premislas*, a simple laborer. This new prince showed himself worthy of the throne, and made some very good laws. He began to reign in 632, and died in 676. His daughter succeeded him.

In 950 Bohemia became tributary to the Empire. The sovereigns of Bohemia bore the title of dukes until 1061, when the Emperor Henry IV gave the name of king to Uratislas II, who was the eightcenth duke.

After the death of Louis II, who was slain in a battle in 1526, the crown of Bohemia passed to the house of Austria, in the person of Ferdinand I, who had espoused the sister of that prince, and from being elective, as it had been before, it became hereditary in this house, which still possesses it.

swiss.

Switzerland, anciently called *Helvetia*, was subdued by Julius Cæsar, and remained under the dominion of the Romans during nearly five centuries.

Who expelled the Marcomanni? Who cleared up the country?

What is said of the successors of Zeck?—Of Libussa and Premislas?

What happened to Bohemia in 950?

What is said of Uratislas?—Of Louis II?—Of Ferdinand I? What is said of the crown after Ferdinand?

What was the ancient name of Switzerland?

By whom was it subdued?

How long did it continue under the Roman dominion?

When the barbarous nations threw themselves upon the empire, the Burgundians and Suevi fell upon Helvetia and divided it.

Towards the middle of the VI century the French made themselves masters of the whole country conquered by these two nations, and Helvetia became a province of the French empire.

Towards the end of the IX century Switzerland was re-united to Germany.

In the XIV century, the Emperor Albert, son of Rudolph of Hapsburg, wishing entirely to subdue the cantons of Schwitz, Underwald and Uri, which still preserved a remnant of liberty, treated them very rudely in order to drive them to revolt, and have by this means an opportunity of reducing them to slavery. He established there two governors, who, in furtherance of his views, acted in a manner the most tyrannical, to such a degree that Gesler, one of them, demanded that the same honors should be rendered to his cap, which he exposed in the public square, at the top of a pike, as to his own person: such a course of conduct did, in fact, excite murmurs; but the consequences did not answer to the expectations of the emperor. William Tell refused to obey the order of the governor. As a punishment, Gesler condemned him to strike down, with an arrow, an apple placed upon the head of his only son, or to be beheaded with him, if he failed of his stroke. William Tell took two arrows; as he was an excellent archer, he struck down the apple with the first without touching his son, and turning himself towards the governor, he said to him: The second was for you if I had been so unfortunate

Who next took possession of it?

When did Helvetia become a part of the French empire?

When was it restored to Germany?
What is said of the government of Albert?—Of his minister Gesler?-Of William Tell?

as to kill my son. Gesler, enraged at his boldness, embarked with him on the lake of Lucerne, in order to conduct him to his castle; but William Tell escaped from his hand, and slew him in a defile where he lay in wait for him.

The three oppressed cantons united together, placed William Tell at their head, and put to flight the imperial governor, with all his suite, whom they conducted out of the country: this was the first signal of independence (1308).

The three other heroes of this revolution are: first, Arnold de Melchtal; secondly, Werner; thirdly, Wal-

ter Furst.

The three cantons immediately formed a league for ten years. The emperor Albert marched against them; but he was assassinated by one of his nephews at the passage of the Reuss, which gave these cantons time to take their measures. The dake Leopold having come to attack them, they cut his army in pieces, in a little place called Morgarten, although they were only 1500 in number, and their enemies were 20,000. This day became as celebrated in the annals of the Helvetian republic as that of Thermopylæ in those of Greece. The Helvetians made a perpetual alliance among themselves, and took the name of Swiss, from the most important of the three cantons.

The principal wars which the Swiss had to maintain afterwards were: first, against Charles the Rash, duke of Burgundy, whom they vanquished at the famous battle of Morat (1476); secondly, against Maximilian, emperor of Germany; thirdly, against each other, divided by the doctrines of the reformer Zwingle, carate of Glaris. Cappel

What course was pursued by the three oppressed cantons?—Who were the other heroes of the Swiss revolution?—What is said of Albert?—What took place at Morgarten?—Whence originated the name of Swiss?—What wars were afterwards carried on by the Swiss?

was the theatre of the first combats between the reformed and the papists; Zwingle perished there, and his party was worsted.

Meanwhile the other cantons united themselves in succession to those of Schwitz, Uri and Unterwalden, and Switzerland reckons at the present day twenty-two of them.

Thus was formed that singular republic, divided into cantons independent of one another, but united for the common defence.

The house of Austria for a long time made great exertions to recover its dominion over the Swiss; but it did not succeed, and at the peace of Westphalia, in 1648, their independence was recognised.

Since that time Switzerland has followed the destiny of Europe. The French army occupied it in 1798 and 1799, and Napoleon imposed upon it a new constitution. In 1814 the allies, not consenting to recognise its neutrality, traversed it for the purpose of penetrating into France. The congress of Vienna put an end to all the dissensions of this country, by assigning to the confederacy its rights, its limits, and its duties.

Secondary Nations.

OF THE HISTORY OF THE MIDDLE AGE.

The Venetians. Venice was founded in the V century by the Venedi, who, on the arrival of Attila, king of the Huns, took refuge at the mouth of the Po. They established

How many cantons does Switzerland contain at present?—What is the nature of the Swiss league?—What efforts were made by the house of Austria?—What took place at the peace of Westphalia?—What is said of the French occupancy of that country?—Did the allies in 1814 recognize its neutrality?—How did the congress of Vicnna terminate its divisions?—By whom and on what occasion was Venice founded?

lished there some cabins, and the city became large and

powerful in after times.

Each island was at first governed by a tribune of its own. They were afterwards united under a single chief, called a doge. The first doge was Paul Anafesto (VII century), 697.

The dogeship was for life, and depended upon the suffrages of the community. The doge was a veritable monarch; but by little and little the authority of this duke was restricted, and the government of Venice became democratic.

Venice was soon enriched by commerce; she acquired a power and superiority which frequently excited the jealousy of her neighbors, and stirred up wars against her.

The crusades increased that republic, and the fourth especially, by dismembering the Greek empire, rendered her mistress of many ports of Albania, Greece and the Morea; she ruled even in the islands of Corfu, Cephalonia, Candia, &c.

But in the XIII century (1298), the establishment of the hereditary aristocracy occasioned great commotions. The revolt of one of the Venitians named Tieopolo and his partisans, who desired the re-establishment of the ancient form of government (1310), provoked the appointment of the Council of Ten, a severe tribunal, and a formidable support of the nobles.

The discoveries of the XV century injured the commerce of Venice, but at the same time gave that city more tranquility, by terminating the jealousy against her.

The French made themselves masters of her in 1797.

What form of government was first established there?—What is said of the origin and nature of the dogeship?—Of the democracy?—By what means was Venice rendered rich and powerful?—What effect had the crusades upon her?—What is said of the hereditary aristocracy and Tieopolo?—Of the council of Ten?—What effect in Venice had the discoveries of the XV century ?-When did the French take possession of Venice?

and obliged the doge to betake himself to flight. By the treaty of Campo Formio she was ceded to the Emperor of Austria.

By the treaty of Presburg, Venice was restored to Bonaparte, who gave her to Prince Eugene de Beauharnais, but in 1814 she reverted to Austria, and forms at present the second capital of the Lombardo Venitian kingdom.

The Genoese. Destroyed by Hannibal, rebuilt by the consul Spurius, Genoa was subdued by the Goths, from whom the Lombards took her. Almost entirely destroyed in these conflicts, she was rebuilt by Charlemagne, who annexed her to the French empire. In the X century she was taken by the Saracens, who, having put all the men to the sword, carried away the women and children into Africa.

Re-established for the third time, her inhabitants devoted themselves to commerce, grew rich, and having become haughty and powerful in proportion to their wealth, erected themselves into a republic, which was soon in a condition to give assistance to christian princes, in the time of the *crusades*.

The Pisans declared war against her; but she still pursued her advantages. The enthusiasm of liberty finally rendered this republic capable of the greatest things; she succeeded in reconciling the opulence of commerce with superiority in arms.

To whom was she ceded by the treaty of Campo Formio?—By the treaty of Presburg?—When did she return to Austria?—What were the early vicissitudes of Genoa?—By whom was she annexed to the French empire?—When was she captured by the Saracens?—How did they treat her citizens?—How were her inhabitants employed after her restoration?—What effect had their growing opulence upon them?—How did they change their political organization?—What is said of them during the crusades?—What people declared war against Genoa?—With what results?—What effect did the enthusiasm of liberty produce upon her?

The jealousy and ambition of her citizens afterward excited great commotions, in which the emperors, the kings of Naples, the Visconti, the marquis of Montferrat, the Sforza and the French, invited successively by different parties who divided the republic, took part. Finally, Andrew Doria (1528) had the good fortune and ability to unite their minds, and established among them the aristocratic form of government. He might have taken possession of the sovereignty; but he contented himself with having established the liberty of his country.

In these flourishing times Genoa possessed many islands of the Archipelago, and several cities on the coasts of Greece and on the shores of the Black Sea. She held even Pera, one of the suburbs of Constantinople; but the enlargement of the Ottoman power considerably weakened her commerce in the Levant.

The conspiracy of Fieschi against the liberty of Genea (1547) had no result, and that country preserved its independence and its government until 1746, when it fell into the power of the Austrians.

Genoa succeeded in extricating herself by the assistance of France, to which she ceded *Corsica* in 1768. From that time she ceased to be an European power; raised again for a moment, in 1796, under the name of the *Ligurian Republic*, afterwards united to the French empire, she was ceded, in 1814, to the king of Sardinia.

The Tuscans. Tuscany remained subject to the Romans until the invasion of the barbarians (V century).

It then passed to the Goths and the Lombards, who

What commotions resulted from the jealousy and ambition of her citizens?—What is said of Andrew Doria?—What territories did she possess at this time?—What is said of the conspiracy of Fieschi?—Through what vicissitudes did Genoapass from 1547 to 1814?—How long did Tuscany remain subject to the Romans?—To whom did it then pass?

placed there dukes, who were removable, that is, liable to be recalled or deposed by those who had appointed them.

Charlemagne subjected Tuscany to counts (VIII century). Louis the Debonaire substituted for them marquises (IX century); they began the series of the sovereigns of Tuscany.

The countess Matilda (XI and XII centuries) made a donation of Tuscany to the holy see; after her death the popes experienced the greatest obstacles to the full enjoyment of this gift on the part of the emperors, who pretended still to retain a right of sovereignty over Tuscany, and who wished at that time to render themselves masters of it; this was the origin of the Guelphs and Ghibbelines, names which designated the party of the popes and that of the emperors.

In the XII century, Tuscany, fatigued by this struggle, erected herself into a republic. The government experienced many variations; civil wars, and especially those between the Florentines and Lucchese, desolated this beautiful country

The Florentines were divided into different bodies of tradesmen; the family of the *Medici*, which belonged to the body of merchants, began to distinguish itself by its moderation and impartiality, and acquired great consideration (XV century).

Cosmo, son of John de Medicis, was the first who exercised an influence upon the government. He was by turns persecuted, banished, and afterward honorably re-

What changes of her form of government under the Goths and Lombards?—Under Charlemagne?—Under Louis the Debonaire!—What is said of the donation of the countess Matilda?—To what great parties did it give rise?—When and why did Tuscany become a republic?—By what was Tuscany desolated?—Into what were the Florentines divided?—What is said of the family of the Modlei?—Of Cosmo?

called. He received the title of Father of his country (1434).

We remark among his successors:

First, Lawrence I and Julian, who were appointed by their fellow citizens princes of the republic. The Pazzi conspired against them. Julian was assassinated in a church; Lawrence escaped.

Secondly, Leo X (John de Medicis), pope in 1513. Protector of letters and the fine arts, he gave his name to his century. The *indulgences* which he published in favor of those who contributed to the expense of building the great church of Saint Peter were the immediate occasion of the reformation of Luther.

Thirdly, Clement VII, pope. He leagued with the French against Charles Fifth. His refusal to confirm the repudiation of Catharine of Arragon, wife of Henry VIII, caused the separation of England from Rome (1534).

Fourthly, Catharine de Medicis, daughter of Lawrence and Margaret of Bologna; she married Henry II, king of France.

Fifthly, Mary de Medicis, daughter of Francis I and Jane of Austria; she married Henry IV, king of France.

This family continued to reign in Tuscany, and produced many great men. They protected letters and the arts.

Gaston de Medicis, the last of the family, having no children, disposed of his dominions in favor of Francis, duke of Lorraine (1737).

After the war of Poland the powers concerned decreed that Tuscany should be given to Francis of Lorraine, and

What is said of Lawrence I and Julian?—Of Leo X?—Of Clement VII?—Of Catharine de Medicis?—Of Mary de Medicis?—What is said of the patronage of the arts?—Of Gaston de Medicis?—What disposal was made of Tuscany at the close of the Polish war?

that Lorraine should belong to Stanislaus Leczinski, to be afterward reunited to France. Tuscany then remained in the house of Austria; but, during the revolution in France the French made a conquest of it. In 1801 it was raised into a monarchy, under the name of the kingdom of Etruria, in favor of prince Louis, duke of Parma, the infant of Spain. After the death of that prince, in 1803, it was reunited to the French empire. In 1814, Tuscany was restored to Austria under the name of the arch-duchy.

The Parmesans and Placentians. After the destruction of the Roman empire these States shared the fate of the other countries of Italy; they afterward passed to Pepin, son of Charlemagne; but in the XII century they raised themselves into a republic.

The Guelphs and the Ghibellines desolated this country; the misunderstanding which reigned between the nobles and the people was productive of no less ravage.

In the XVI century the popes adjudged these States to belong to themselves, by virtue of the gift which Charlemagne had made of them to the holy see; Leo X abandoned them to Frances I, and resumed them after the misfortunes of that sovereign; finally Paul III made them pass to Peter Louis Farnese, his son; it is at this prince that the series of the dukes of Parma and Placentia begins (1545).

Octavius Farnese, son of Louis, inherited only Parma, the emperor having possessed himself of Placentia.

Alexander, his son, was replaced in possession of the entire duchy (1568). He was one of the greatest cap-

What befel it during the French revolution?—In 1801?—After the death of prince Louis?—In 1814?—What political changes in Parma and Placentia until the republic?—By what factions were these countries desolated?—Through what subsequent changes did they pass until 1545?—What is said of Octavius Farnese?—Of Alexander?

tains of the XVI century; he was made governor of the revolted Low Countries; he had espoused Maria, the grand-daughter of *Emanuel the Great*, king of Portugal, who brought him certain rights to the crown of that country. Force decided the question in favor of Philip, king of Spain, in 1580.

After the death of duke Anthony, the last of the Farnese, the imperial troops seized upon his dominions as

vacant fiels of the empire.

Meanwhile Don Carlos, son of Philip V, king of Spain, obtained possession of them and ceded them to his brother, Don Philip. On becoming king of Naples, Philip left them to Ferdinand, his son.

At present these two States are governed by the archduchess, Maria Louisa, in virtue of the act of the con-

gress of Vienna (1814).

The Lucchese. The city of Lucca held a distinguished rank under the Roman emperors. It surrendered to Narses, the general of Justinian, in the V century. It was from that time governed by counts and marquisses until the XII century, when it recovered its liberty.

War was declared in the XV century between the Florentines and the Lucchese: Lucca sustained a siege, and afterward entered into an accommodation with the

Florentines.

She subsequently placed herself under the protection of the emperors. Conquered by the French in the XVIII century, that city was afterward raised into a principality which belonged to the grand-duke of Tuscany, the brother of Frances, emperor of Austria.

What befel these countries after the death of duke Anthony?
—What is said of Don Carlos?—Of Don Philip?—Of Ferdinand?—Of their present government?—Through what political changes has Lucca passed?

The Moderice. The duchy of Moderia made a part of Cisalpine Gaul. It underwent the same revolutions as all the north of Italy. The Romans made themselves masters of it in the third century before J. C. It passed to the barbarians, the Lombards, the French, and the Germans. From the time of the divisions of the Guelphs and Ghibbelines, many sovereignties arose in Italy, of which Modena was one of the most considerable. It was formed by the house of Este, in the XIII century, and became a duchy in the XV.

Alphonso II, in the XVI century, son of Alphonso I, being dead without children, the succession of this duchy was bequeathed to Cæsar, of the younger branch, and

grandson of Alphonso I.

Caesar experienced opposition in his new dominion on the part of Clement VIII, and ended by ceding to him the district of Ferrara, which was united to the states of the Church. The duke fixed himself at Modena.

Hercules Renault d'Este, in the XVIII century, had only one daughter, who married a prince of the house of Austria, to which Modena and Reggio are revertible.

The Ravennese. Ravenna. When the barbarians had rendered themselves masters of Italy, the emperors of the East sent thither from time to time generals for the main-

tenance of their rights.

The general, Narses, having been called home in 508, Longinus took his place and established himself at Ravenna with the title of exarch. He was afterward recalled. Many generals were sent thither in succession, and bore the same title.

Liutprand, king of the Lombards, got possession of Ravenua in 726, under the exarch Paul; but that governor, with the assistance of the Pope and of Venice, retook it the following year.

Can you give the history of Modena ?-Of Ravenna?

It was finally taken by Astolphus, king of the Lombards, from Eutyches, the last of the exarchs, who was driven from Italy and obliged to return to Constantinople.

Two years afterwards, *Pepin*, king of France, compelled Astolphus to give that city to the Pope, a donation which Charlemagne confirmed by adding to it new territories. Ravenna has followed the revolutions of Italy; it made a part of the French empire under Napoleon, and is at the present day comprised among the states of the Church.

The Milanese. The city of Milan, already powerful in the time of the Romans, and even before being subject to them, became the prey of the barbarians who succeeded one to another in Italy after the fall of the empire. After Charlemagne, the Archbishops of Milan enjoyed the sovereignty; in the X century the people shook off the yoke of the Prelates. Hostilities continued some time longer. In the XII century the imperial officers were driven out, and Milan became a republic.

The emperor Frederic Barbarossa, being irritated by this expulsion of his functionaries, turned his arms against the Milanese, subdued them and destroyed their city, which was afterward re-built more splendidly than ever.

After having withdrawn themselves from the dominion of the emperors, the Milanese gave themselves a chief in the person of *Martin della Torre*, who expelled the Nobles and the Archbishop (1257). The *Torriani* united in themselves all the authority; but their power did not last long: it ended with *Napoleon de la Torre* in 1265.

The family of Visconti, which descended from Mathew Visconti, nephew of the Archbishop, succeeded to the Torriani, in the XIII century (1295). We notice among these princes John Galeas, first duke of Milan and father of Valentine Visconti, who by his marriage-connexion

with Louis of Orleans, brought into the house of France rights which were rendered available at a later period, and which caused the wars of Italy under Charles VIII, Louis XII and Francis I.

The branch of the Visconti was extinguished in Philip-Maria, brother of Galeas; his general, Bussoni, called Carmagnole, betrayed him in favor of the Venitians, who still put the traitor to death. Another general, Francis Sforza, having married Blanche, daughter of Philip, became heir of the duchy of Milan. His family reigned there until Francis I divested of it Maximilian Sforza, who died by assassination in 1530. Charles V possessed himself of it in his turn, restored it to Sforza, again inherited it, and left it in his house, in which it remained until 1714, when it was ceded to Austria.

In 1797 Milan became the metropolis of the Cisalpine republic, established by the French, and in 1804 the capital of a new kingdom of Italy. In 1814 that city returned to Austria and is become the capital of the Lombardo-Venitian kingdom.

IN ASIA.

Jerusalem. The christians of Europe, sensible to the sufferings which their captive brethren among the infidels or Mohammedans in Palestine endured, undertook the conquest of the Holy Land in 1095, at the Council of Clermont.

All the princes of Europe sent thither troops, under the conduct of Godfrey of Bouillon, son of Eustache, duke of Boulogne. This generalissimo, having rendered himself master of Palestine, was chosen king of Jerusalem.

His descendants enjoyed the kingdom until 1187. At that epoch, Saladin, sultan of Egypt and Syria, after hav-

What account is given of the kingdom of Jerusalem?

ing gained many advantages over the christians, defeated Guy of Lusignan at the battle of Tiberias, and made himself master of Jerusalem, which had endured as a kingdom eighty years, under nine kings.

Meanwhile the French still possessed certain territories along the coasts of Syria, until 1291, when Melek-Araf, sultan of Egypt, completely drove them out, after having made himself master of the city of Acre, which had remained theirs.

PRINCIPAL NATIONS OF THE ISLANDS OF THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA.

Archipelago of the Balcares. The Greeks called those islands Gymnesiæ, because their inhabitants went naked; they called them also Balcares, from a word which signifies to throw, on account of the address of the inhabitants in managing the sling.

The Carthaginians made war for a long time against the Baleares, and Cæsar employed them advantageously against the Gauls: In the V century the Vandals took possession of the Balearic isles, and, in the VIII the Moors established themselves there; but the latter were driven out, in 1259, by James I, king of Arragon. This archipelago belongs at present to Spain.

The Corsicans. Corsica has pertained successively to the Carthaginians, the Romans, the Vandals, the Goths, the Lombards, the Saracens, and the French, under Charles Martel; to the Colonna (a Roman family), in the VIII century; to the popes, the Pisans, the Genoese and the kings of Arragon. The Genoese finally got possession of the island. But the Corsicans supported the yoke of Genoa only impatiently. During the four centuries that the Genoese dominion lasted, they tried several times to

What is said of the Archipelago of the Baleares ?-Of the Corsicans?

withdraw themselves from it; but in vain. They followed the destiny of Genoa, and passed with it to the French, the Milanese and the Neapolitans.

A revolt having broken out in 1729, the Genoese called the Imperialists to their assistance in subduing the rebels; the Imperialists came in fact and caused an accommodation to be signed in 1734, the conditions of which were not obeyed.

Aided by the disturbances which prevailed among them, a German baron, called *Newhoff*; spoke of liberty to the Corsicans and succeeded in causing himself to be proclaimed king; but on his return from a voyage to Holland, he found the island in the power of the Freuch, whom the Genoese had called thither. *Newhoff* fled into England, where he died.

A new sedition speedily broke out; the French were sent for again. In 1761 the attempt was made to pacify Corsica; but she declared that she wished no master. The Genoese took the part of ceding her to France, of which at present she forms a department.

Paoli, whom the Corsicans had chosen for their general, and who had tried to enfranchise them, was constrained to take refuge in England.

Sardinia. This island was originally peopled by the Phenicians, and afterward conquered by the Carthaginians, from whom the Romans took it in the first punic war.

In modern times it had been in the power of Spain until 1719, when it was ceded to the duke of Savoy, who bears the title of king of Sardinia, Cyprus and Jerusalem, and duke of Savoy.

Candia. After the fall of the Roman empire Candia passed to the emperors of the East, who retained it until the commencement of the IX century (825). The apostle Paul is supposed to have introduced christianity into the

island. The Arabs, who took possession of it in the IX century, were driven from it in the X. Afterward it passed successively to the Genoese and the Venitians, the latter of whom possessed it nearly five centuries. In the XVII century the Turks made themselves masters of it, after a disastrous war of twenty-four years; in 1669 they secured to themselves the possession of it by a treaty, and since then it has always remained in their power, notwithstanding the troubles of the late wars.

Rhodes. The Rhodians have performed a conspicuous part in history. They were the last to submit to the Romans, under Vespasian (I century). The knights of Saint John of Jerusalem maintained themselves there at first, in spite of all the efforts of Mahomet II (XV century); but, besieged anew by the sultan Solyman the Great, in 1523, they gave way to numbers and were buried beneath the ruins of their city. Rhodes has since shared the fate of all the nations of Greece: it belongs to the Turks.

Cyprus. Cyprus was peopled by the Phenicians before the Greek colonics came to settle there. It passed to the Macedonians, and to the Ptolemies, kings of Egypt, from whom the Romans took it. After the fall of the Roman empire it was for some time occupied by the Arabs; but the Greek emperors drove them from it, and, during the crusades, Richard I, king of England, took it from Isaac Comnenus, at the close of the XII century (1191), and ceded it to the house of Lusignan, to indemnify that family for the throne of Jerusalem. At the death of king John this island would have belonged to the king of Sardinia by the marriage of a prince of his house with an heiress of Lusignan: but that princess, in 1480, ceded the sovereignty of it to the Venitians, who were stript of it, in 1570, by the Turks, to whom it still belongs, although the kings of Sardinia entitle themselves kings of Cyprus.

OBSERVATION.

The pupil should make a synoptical table of these secondary nations, whose history cannot be easily seized by the memory or developed by means of questions, without increasing their number disproportionately to the relative importance of the nations themselves. He should write an analysis of them in lateral columns.

Modern History.

TURKS.

BEFORE THE CONQUEST OF CONSTANTINOPLE.

In the IX century the Turks or Turcomans emigrated from Tartary in order to establish themselves in Armenia. From thence, some directed their course into Persia, others into the province of Bagdad. Disquieted by the other Tartar tribes, they withdrew themselves, in the XII century, into Asia Minor, which they had previously conquered, and established the seat of their government at Iconium. Osman, or Ottoman, one of their chiefs, united all the tribes under the same sceptre, hoisted the standard of Mahomet, took the title of sultan, and founded, in 1300, the dynasty of the Turks, called from his name Osmanlis, or Ottomans.

Among the successors of Osman, we notice Orkan (from 1328 to 1359), who founded the institution of the Janissaries; Amurath I (from 1358 to 1389), who was called from his victories, Gazile, or the Conqueror; he

What were the emigrations of the Turks in the IX century?
—What induced them to retire into Asia Minor?—Where did
they establish their seat of government?—What is said of Osman or Ottoman?—Of Orkan?—Of Amurath I?

gained possession of Adrianople, to the north of Constantinople, and organized the Janissaries; Bajazet I (1389-1403), surnamed Ildrehim or the Thunder, won great victories, but was vanquished at Aneyra by Tamerlane, who, it is said, shut him up in an iron cage; Amurath II (from 1421 to 1451), who won a great victory at Varna over the Poles (1444); and finally Mahomet II, the son of Amurath (from 1451 to 1481), who may be considered as the second founder of the Ottoman grandeur; he took Constantinople by assault, on the 29 h of May, 1453, and put an end to the Roman empire of the East.

AFTER THE CONQUEST OF CONSTANTINOPLE.

Among the twenty-four sultans who have reigned since the conquest of Constantinople, we distinguish:

Mahomet II, of whom we have spoken. He made successively the conquest of Servia, the Morea, Athens, Trebizonde, Bosnia, Albania, and Negropont.

Selim I (from 1512 to 1520), surnamed the Ferocious. He effected the conquest of Syria, of Armenia, and, in in 1516, of Egypt, under the Mamelukes.

Solyman II (from 1520 to 1566), surnamed the Magnificent and the Great; he was the hero of his race. His most brilliant actions are the siege and capture of Rhodes from the knights of Saint John; the victory of Mohaez over the Hungarians; the siege of Vienna; the capture of Bagdad; the conquest of Temen; the siege of Malta, &c. Francis I made alliance with Solyman, and the world saw for the first time a Turko Frankish fleet.

Selim II (from 1566 to 1574) conquered Tunis, and the island of Cyprus, and was beaten at Lepanto (1571), by Don Juan, natural son of Charles Fifth.

What is said of Bajazet 1?—Of Amurath II?—Of Mahomet II?—Of Selim 1?—Of Solyman II?—Of Selim II?

Mahomet IV (from 1649 to 1687). This sultan, in 1683, invaded Hungary, and besieged Vienna. At the same time, Sobieski having marched to the assistance of that city, the Turks were beaten and constrained to retreat. Mahomet IV was deposed and strangled.

Solyman III (1687-1691). Under his reign, the famous visir Mustapha Kiuproli gained great victories: he took

possession of Belgrade.

Achmet III (from 1703 to 1730), the host of Charles XII and of Stanislaus. Resolved to re-establish the king of Sweden, he was preparing a formidable army for that purpose, when Peter the Great prevented him and advanced imprudently as far as Jassy. The Turks enveloped him on the banks of the Pruth, and he found himself constrained to treat with them; less fortunate in his encounter with the prince Eugene, Achmet was obliged to sign a shameful peace at Passarowitz.

From this epoch dates the decay of the Ottoman empire; for since then the Turks have successively experienced numerous defeats on the part of the Persians, the French army in Egypt, the Russians, in different encounters, and in the last place, the Greeks, who are at present masters of the Morea, of Livadia, and a large part of the Archipelago. All these events took place under Mahmoud II. He was one of the greatest men of his age. The reforms which he made, the destruction of the Janissaries, and his noble and vigorous resistance of the Russians, render his name celebrated in the annals of Europe. His successor is Abdeel Medjid, who was raised to the sultanate June 30th, 1839.

AMERICANS IN GENERAL.

The belief in the existence of a fourth part of the worl

What is said of Mahomet IV ?-Of Solyman III ?-Of Achmet III ?-Of Mahmoud II ?-Of Abdeel Medjid ?

had been diffused among the ancients. Plato, in the VI century before J. C. and Ælian, a cotemporary of the Roman emperor Adrian, speak of the existence of a great country to the west of Africa. Still, the fathers of the Church believed it their duty to attack that opinion, which was gaining credit, as impious: they could not believe in the antipodes. There was nothing as yet on this head but conjecture; it was reserved for modern navigators to prove the reality of another hemisphere. One of them, Christopher Columbus, a Genoese, conceived that another world might be discovered by sailing towards the west. Genoa having treated him as a visionary, and John II, king of Portugal, having declined his services, Columbus presented himself at the court of Spain, where queen Isabella entrusted to him three vessels for a voyage of discovery. Columbus departed on the 3rd of August, 1492; he embarked at the port of Palos (Andalusia), with an equipment of one hundred and twenty men. He gained the island of Gomera, where he recruited his little fleet. Proceeding on his voyage, three months passed away and no land presented itself. The crews murmured and talked of throwing Columbus into the sea. The second day after this mutinous occurrence, a fresher breeze restored hope, and on the 11th of October, at 10 o'clock in the evening, the spontaneous cry was heard: Land! Land! The whole company fell at the feet of Columbus, and saluted him admiral and vice-roy.

The land which he had reached was the Island of Guanahani, which Columbus called San Salvador.

He afterwards discovered Conception, la Ferdinanda, and Isabella, and landed on the large island of Cuba; in twenty-four hours he arrived at the Island of Hayti, which

What is said of the ancient opinions concerning another continent?—What account is given of Columbus and his enterprise?—What land did he first discover?—What were his subsequent discoveries?

he called *Hispaniola*, afterwards named *Saint Domingo*, and which now has resumed the name of *Hayti*. Finally, in his three voyages, he discovered the *Lucayas*, the *Great* and *Little Antilles*, and landed on *terra firma*, not far from the spot where Carthagena was afterwards built.

After suffering many injustices, Christopher Columbus, on returning from his third voyage, died at Valladolid, in 1506, at the age of sixty-five years: notwithstanding his discoveries, it was still a Florentine trader, named Americus Vespuecius, who had the honor of giving his name to the new hemisphere.

Many adventurers, encouraged by the discoveries of Christopher Columbus, pursued the same career as him-

self.

DISCOVERIES IN AMERICA.

IX Century .- The Danes in Greenland.

1492.—Christopher Columbus discovered the Lucayan Islands, Cuba, and Hispaniola.

1496 .- Sebastian Cabot, a Venitian, in the service of

England, discovered Newfoundland and Virginia.

1518.—Grijalva, a Spaniard, saw the coasts of Mexico.
1518.—The Baron de Levi, a Frenchman, visited the eastern coasts of America.

1519 .- Fernando Cortez subdued Mexico.

1554.—Cartier, a Frenchman, arrived at the mouth of the River St. Lawrence.

1607.—Hudson discovered the coast east of Greenland. 1607-1733.—The United States of America, founded by the English, in colonies, under James I.

What was the sequel of his history?—Who gave name to the new hemisphere?—When and by whom was Greenland discovered?—Cuba and Hispaniola?—Newfoundland and Virginia?—The coasts of Mexico?—The eastern coasts of America?—Interior of Mexico?—Mouth of the St Lawrence?—Coasts east of Greenland?—Territory of the British American colonies?

SOUTH AMERICA.

1500.—Alvarez Cabral, a Portuguese, discovered Brazil.

1520,—Mogellan discovered Terra del Fuego and Patagonia.

1524.—Discovery and conquest of Peru by *Pizarro*, a Spaniard.

MEXICANS.

In 1519, the Spaniards, commanded by Fernando Cortez, a simple lieutenant of Velasquez, Governor of Cuba, made the conquest of Mexico. Men mounted on horses, fire-arms, and ships, like floating fortresses, diffused terror among the Mexicans, who still were considerably advanced in civilization and the mechanic arts.

The empire of Mexico was then governed by *Montezuma*, a powerful king, who had a great number of vassals.

Cortez made that prince prisoner, who was slain in an insurrection by his own subjects. The Mexicans were subdued after some years of warfare, and their country remained in the power of the Spaniards. We cannot figure to ourselves the fearful cruelties which defiled the conquest of Mexico; a great number of the inhabitants were marked upon the forehead with a hot iron, and afterwards sent to labor in the mines. Cortez caused the emperor, Guatimozin, nephew of Montezuma, to be stretched upon burning coals. But these numerous crimes were of no use to Cortez himself; Charles Fifth caused all his possessions to be seized upon, and commanded

When and by whom was Brazil discovered?—Terra del Fuego and Patagonia?—Peru?—What were the exploits of Fernando Cortez in Mexico?—How.did he deal with Montezuma?—What is said of the crueltics practised by the Spaniards?—How did Cortez treat Guatimozin?—How did Charles Fifth deal with Certez?

him to return to Spain, where he died in 1545. The Spaniards drew immense wealth from Mexico, but the extreme severity of their laws exasperated the minds of the colonists, and the events which agitated Spain in 1808, in consequence of the invasion of that country by the armies of Napoleon, favored the movements in Mexico against the despotic dominion of the government. A monk, named Hidalgo, raised the standard of independence: he was shot in 1811. Morillos a new leader of the insurrection, caused a provincial constitution to be proclaimed, in 1812. Being made prisoner, he was condemned to death as a heretic and rebel. A third chief, the youthful Xavier Mina, met with the same fate.

New revolts took place against new vexations. Iturbide was declared generalissimo of Mexico by land and sea. A congress was convoked, when that ambitious chief caused himself to be proclaimed Emperor. Still many deputies had the courage to protest; the opposition to the new emperor became general. Sonta Anna, governor of Vera Cruz, became the interpreter of the whole nation, and proclaimed the republic (1812). Iturbide abdicated: the Mexicans had the generosity to exile him, conferring upon him at the same time a considerable pension.

Mexico then constituted herself into federative re-

publics.

Meanwhile *Iturbide* still dreamt of the crown of Mexico. He had been declared a traitor and proscribed; he departed nevertheless from England, on the 11th of May 1824, and on the 8th of July he appeared at the bar of

Did the Spaniards drawgreat wealth from Mexico?—What effect did their severity produce on the colonists?—What favored the Mexican struggle for independence?—What is said of Hidalgo?—Of Morillos?—Of Xavier Mina?—Of Iturbide? Of Santa Anna?—What attempt was afterwards made by Iturbide?

Soto la Marna, with his family, and disembarked in disguise; he was taken and shot on the 19th of July. Mexico has since had new shocks; her people apparently incapable of self government, have been the prey of ephemeral demagogues and military despots, and their turbulent and distracted state has ended in a war, now in progress, with this country, (the United States,) the results of which, though as yet not fully apparent, can scarcely fail to be ultimately of immense benefit to Mexico, let the immediate issue of the conflict be what it may.

PERUVIANS.

In 1524 three adventurers, Francis Pizarro, the natural son of a gentleman of Estramadura, and, in his youth, a shepherd at Truxillo; Diego d'Almagro, found at the door of a church, and Fernando de Lucca, a shepherd and schoolmaster at Panama, all three of them more than fifty years of age, formed the project of penetrating into the continent of South America.

Francis Pizarro set sail from Panama in November, and discovered Peru. Huana Capa, a warlike prince, then occupied the Peruvian throne. Pizarro returned to Panama, and came back the year following to pursue his conquest. The country was at that time disturbed by the rivalry of the two sons of Huana, Athualipa and Huascar, who disputed the throne. The former having got possession of Quito, the capital of the empire, both of them sought to gain Pizarro, who had already exterminated forty thousand Peruvians. In an interview which he had with Athualipa, the inca was made prisoner. Trembling

What is the present condition of the Mexicans?—What account is given of Pizarro and his associates?—By whom was Peru discovered?—What native prince then occupied the throne?—By what was the country at that time disturbed?—What attempt was made by the sons of Huana in regard to Pizarro?—Whom did he make prisoner?

with fear, he promised for ransom as many ingots of gold as the hall where he found himself would contain up to the height which a man could reach with his hand. These sacrifices were useless. He was strangled on one of the public squares. The principal provinces of the empire were from that time subject to the Spaniards.

Almagro, jealous of Pizarro, possessed himself of Cuzco; but the companion of his fortune marched against him, defeated him, caused his officers to be slaughtered, and himself to be strangled in prison. He was afterward beheaded at Lima, being seventy-seven years of age. Ferdinando de Lucca, who became bishop of Peru, died in 1533; but the partisans of Almagro had sworn to avenge themselves. Pizarro succumbed beneath their strokes, and his death led to that of the son of Almagro, who was appointed governor of Lima. This young man perished in the same city, on the same square, of the same punishment, by the hand of the same executioner, and was placed in the same tomb as his father. The spanish despotism was organized in Peru as in Mexico. The colonists waited only for an opportunity to throw it off. The events of 1808 produced no revolution; but General Saint Martin shook the whole population. The Indian tribes, the Spanish, all armed themselves, and the independence of Peru was recognized and declared in 1821. Saint Martin quitted the Peruvians after having enfranchised them. His departure was fatal to the state which he had founded. It was about to relapse into the power of Spain, when Bolivar and his lieutenant, General Sucre

What promise was made by Athualipa?—Did the performance of his promise avail him aught?—To whom was the greater part of the empire from that time subject?—What is said of Almagro?—Of Fernand de Lucca?—Of the partisans of Almagro?—Of the deaths of Pizarro and Almagros son?—What is said of the Spanish despotism in Peru?—What effect was produced by Gen. St. Martin?—What was the consequence of his leaving Peru?

reanimated the Peruvians and restored to them their liberty. The titles of Father of the People and Savior of Peru were decreed to Bolivar.

BRAZILIANS.

The discovery of Brazil belongs to the Portuguese. Alvarez Cabral commander of a fleet of that nation, wishing to reach the Indies, was driven by contrary winds upon the coasts of Brazil, which he discovered; he took possession of it in the name of the king of Portugal. This colony acquired in the sequel a high importance from the rich mines of gold and diamonds which were discovered there. The history of Brazil offers nothing of interest until 1580, when that country passed to Spain; but in 1640 a revolution placed upon the throne of Portugal the family of Braganza, and caused the dominion of the Spaniards in Brazil to cease. The Hollanders also possessed themselves, in 1624, of a part of that country; but after many vicissitudes the Portuguese recovered the full possession of it in 1661, by paying to Holland eight tons of gold. In 1808, when the English and the French took possession of Portugal, John VI, then regent of the kingdom, passed over to Brazil, and established there the seat of government; but being recalled by the Cortes of Lisbon, he set sail from Brazil, with all his court, on the 26th of April, 1821. Don Pedro, hereditary prince, remained in America, with the title of vice-roy; but the Brazilians, unwilling any longer to be dependent on Lisbon, proclaimed him Emperor of Brazil under the name of Pedro I, on the 12th of October, 1822. A military revolution soon hurled him from the throne, upon which was seated his son, Pedro II (1841).

What account is given of Bolivar?—By whom was Brazil discovered?—What gave this colony a high importance?—When did Brazil become a Spanish possession?—What change took place in 1640? 1642? 1661? 1308? 1321! 1322? 1841?

HAYTIENS.

(Saint Domingo.)

The island of Hispaniola (little Spain), Saint Domingo or Hayti, was discovered by Christopher Columbus, in 1492. It was then inhabited by the Carribees who, at an epoch difficult to determine, had made a conquest of it from the Ygnéris, and were confounded with them.

The Spaniards, after having exterminated them, remained peaceable possessors of the island. They replaced the destroyed population by blacks imported from the coasts of Africa. The example of such importations was continually followed, and this new race was naturalized upon the soil, of which they have become proprietors. In 1620 certain French and English adventurers unitedly took possession of the island. Driven out in their turn by the Spaniards, they retired to the island of Tortuga, situated on the north-east coast, where they rendered themselves formidable by their piracies. Towards the middle of the XVII century these same adventurers, known under the name of buccaneers or freebooters, having anew seized upon more than two-fifths of the island of Hayti, France took them under her protection.

In 1665, d'Ogeron, governor of the island, sent thither by the court of France, employed the ascendant of his talents and virtues over the white inhabitants. He commenced their civilization and turned their activity to the profit of the cultivation of Saint Domingo. The part which they occupied was ceded to France by the treaty of Ryswick, in 1697.

By whom and when was Hispaniola discovered?—By whom was it then inhabited?—What is said of the Carribees and the Ygnéris?—What is said of the Spaniards?—How did they replace the native population?—What resulted from the importation of the blacks into Hayt?—Who took possession of the island in 1620?—What became of them after their expulsion?—What is said of d'Ogeron?

The colony languished until 1722, under the government of companies; but from that time its prosperity went on continually increasing, until the revolution of 1789.

The troubles of France were the first signal of those of the colony. There was loud talk in the island of liberty, of the abolition of privileges. Exaggerated pretensions raised the passions of the islanders, excited disorders, and prepared the way for the loss of the colony in 1789.

The mulattoes assembled after the constitution of Saint Mark, and a first insurrection was excited by $Ag\acute{e}$, who had arrived from France.

The blacks and the mulattoes, who formed the great majority of the population, claimed at that epoch the same rights as the whites, and the latter obstinately refusing them, a general insurrection broke out in the month of August, 1791, and the whole French part of the island presented nothing but one vast field of burning, slaughter and desolation. Agents proceeding from the Spanish party directed the first efforts of the slaves, who had, at the outset, remained strangers to the debates of their masters.

On the 10th of April, 1793, Port an Prince was besieged. Two thousand bullets were fired at the city; a large number of the inhabitants were transported. On the 20th of June Golbaud, the governor, placed himself at the head of the insurrection of the sailors of the squadron, in the road-stead of the Cape.

What was the state of the colony until 1722?—From 1722 to 1739?—What produced disturbance in the colony?—In what year was it lost to France?—Who excited an insurrection among the mulattoes?—What led to the outbreak in 1791?—What were its consequences?—Who directed the efforts of the insurgent negroes?—What happened to Port au Prince?—What is said of Golband?

Santhonax, a civil commissary, armed the blacks for the defence of the sans-culottes patriots. On the 24th of June the settlement at the Cape was burnt. On the 28th the French fleet took its departure for the United States, whither it transported the unhappy colonists of the Cape. On the 9th of August the re-entrance of the civil commissaries at the Cape took place, amid the cries of Live the Republic. All the whites were obliged to fly. On the 29th of August, Santhonax proclaimed the rights of man, and declared that slavery was abolished for ever in Saint Domingo. On the 22nd of September the English took Jeremy and the mole of St. Nicholas: they maintained themselves in the colony until 1793.

Toussaint Louverture gradually possessed himself of the authority; he forced the commissaries to embark for France; he re-established order and tranquility, and brought back the blacks to their labor. On the 1st of July, 1801, he approved the new constitution of Saint Domingo; he was appointed governor for life and invested with the right of choosing his successor.

On the 14th of December, 1801, Bonaparte sent out from France a fleet of 23 ships of the line and other vessels, loaded with 22,000 men, under the command of General Leclerc, to take possession of the island.

On the 7th of May, 1802, the whole colony submitted to him. Christophe treated first; Toussaint and Dessaline imitated him: they delivered up their arms and munitions of war. On the 10th of June Toussaint was arrested and transported to France; meanwhile sickness made great ravages in the French army: insurrection began anew.

What is said of Santhonax and his proceedings at the Cape?

-What places were captured by the English?

-What is said of Toussaint Louverture?

-What armament was sent to Hayti by Bonaparte?

-What did it accomplish?

From the time that Toussaint Louverture, who was found at the head of the government of Saint Domingo, had been sent into France, Dessaline was of the number of those who aspired to take his place. Aided by Christophe and certain other chiefs, he sustained himself in the northern part of the island against the attacks of General Rochambeau. General Ferrand, who commanded in the Spanish part, maintained order and preserved Saint Domingo to France until 1809.

After the expulsion of the French, in November, 1803, Dessaline got possession of the supreme authority and took the title of James I, emperor of Hayti. He rendered himself odious by his cruelties. A conspiracy was formed against him, and he was killed while attending a review, on the 17th of October, 1806. Christophe was immediately raised to the rank of president and generalissimo, and Pethion was appointed his lieutenant in the eastern part of the island.

An assembly was convoked at the Cape to draw up a constitution. This measure was the source of new divisions. Pethion put himself at the head of the party who wished a representative system. Christophe, a partizan of absolute power, declared Pethion in a state of revolt and marched against him at the head of all his forces. Bloody combats took place at different times between the two competitors, but without any decisive result. From that epoch Pethion maintained himself independently at Port au Prince, under the title of president of the republic of Hayti. In 1811 Christophe caused himself to be consecrated king of Hayti under the name of Henry I, instituted a nobility and modelled the usages of his court upon those of Europe; but having abandoned himself to

What is said of Dessaline?-Of General Ferrand?-What took place in 1803?—What was the fate of Dessaline?—What is said of Christophe and Pethion?

many deeds of cruelty, he was the victim of a conspiracy which took place at the Cape on the 9th of October, 1820. In order that he might not fall into the hands of the conspirators, he committed suicide by burning his brain. Pethion consolidated in the east the order of things which he had established there. He died on the 29th of March, 1818, leaving for his successor General Boyer. This new president availed himself of the revolution which took place at the Cape, and reunited under his government the different provinces of the island. The inhabitants of the Spanish part solicited, on the 25th of December, 1821, a similar favor. The whole island of Saint Domingo is at present governed professedly by the same laws. Port an Prince is now the seat of government of Hayti. On the 17th of April, 1825, appeared an ordinance of the king of France, by which the full and entire independence of the actual government of the French part of the island of Saint Domingo or Hayti was acknowledged. Still Hayti is very far from the enjoyment of a settled government. The crude and heterogeneous elements which enter, there, into the composition of the body politic, are still in a state of fermentation, and it is greatly to be doubted whether the important island of Saint Domingo can ever enjoy peace or prosperity under its present regimen.

HOLLANDERS AND BELGIANS.

The Romans comprehended under the name of Belgicum almost all the countries situated north of Gaul; they had frequent conflicts to sustain there against strong and warlike nations, who could not accommodate themselves to the yoke of obedience.

What is said of General Boyer?—What is said of the present organization of Hayti?—What countries were included by the Romans under the general name of Belgicum?—What conflicts between the Roman and the Belgæ?

The Batavians made themselves a name among those nations. They followed the destiny of the Roman empire, and passed successively under different masters.

Charlemagne subdued them; they remained under the

dominion of his family until it was extinguished.

Frequent revolutions and interior troubles agitated these provinces, which at first formed only one State under a single chief, but were soon divided into many governments under different names.

There were then a duke of Frisia, a duke of Brabant, a count of Flanders, and a count of Holland: they were frequently at war with their neighbors. Philip the Fair and Charles the Fair gained over them signal victories.

Flanders, which was become very populous and flourishing, had been possessed by the first house of Burgundy, the issue of king Robert. At the commencement of the XV century it passed to the second, the issue of *Philip*, son of king *John*. It was happy under a pacific government; its commerce increased, and all the neighboring nations paid tribute to its industry.

The house of Austria acquired there some fine provinces by a marriage. Mary of Burgundy, only heir of Charles the Rash, the last duke of that family, brought them in dowry to the emperor Maximilian. Philip, their son, espoused Jane the Simple, who brought him Arragon and Castile; he left all his dominions to Charles Fifth. Under this new master, many provinces which at the present day compose Holland, began to manifest their claims to independence; but they were speedily compelled to return

What is said of the Batavians?—What did Charlemagne do to them?—What effect was produced by their inward agitations?—Among what potentates was the country divided?—Who gained many victories over them?—By whom was Flanders successively possessed?—Was it flourishing?—How did the house of Austria acquire dominion there?—What is said of the Belgian provinces under Charles Fifth?

within the bounds of subordination. What the adroit policy of *Charles Fifth* had prevented for a time, came about in consequence of the imperious haughtiness of *Philip II*, and, above all, through the cruel and sanguinary character of the duke of Alba, whom he had appointed governor-general of the Low Countries.

The Hollanders held the inquisition in horror. The duke of Alba, authorized by *Philip II*, established it in all the districts of his government. Scaffolds were prepared, funeral piles kindled, and blood flowed on all sides; the prisons were glutted with prisoners. A tribunal of blood prosecuted equally citizens of all ranks and of all ages. Life was taken from them and their goods were confiscated. Whole families perished by the sword, by water and by fire.

Excessive imposts overwhelmed the people, who had no resources for escaping from their misery but in despair. They were driven to extremity and sought to avenge themselves by revolting. The revolt, in a moment, raised all the provinces of the Low Countries.

William of Nassau, prince of Orange, who had retired into Germany and there raised some troops, joined the malcontents. The duke of Alba was recalled; but it was too late. The war continued with various success; finally the deputies of the States of Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Frisia, Groningen, Over-Yssel, and Gueldres, assembled at Utrecht, and declared Philip II deposed from his sovereignty of the Low Countries (1581).

The stadtholdership was established; but the authority of the chief or stadtholder was balanced by that of the

States-General.

What is said of Philip II and the duke of Alba?—What were the effects of the Inquisition in Holland?—To what were the people driven by excessive imposts?—What prince joined the malcontents?—By whom was Philip II deposed?—What is said of the stadtholderate?

Holland, having become an independent power, constituted herself a republic after the treaty of Westphalia or Munster, in 1648. She maintained afterward successful wars against England and Sweden.

In 1672, on the 4th of July, Holland resumed the government of the stadtholdership. The bravery and ability of admiral Ruyter re-established the prosperity of the State, which had been so seriously compromised. William III, prince of Orange, profited by this return of fortune to cause the stadtholdership to be declared hereditary in his family. He was the son of William II of Nassau and of Henrietta Maria Stuart, daughter of Charles I. He had the glory of making head against Louis XIV; but he was beaten by Luxemburgh, and constrained, by the exhaustion of his forces, to sign the peace of Nimeguen. He took the crown from James II, his father-inlaw, and caused himself to be acknowledged king of England and Scotland. He died in 1702.

At his death the *stadtholdership* was abolished, not to be re established before 1747.

The thirty years' of peace which Holland had enjoyed since the conclusion of the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713, sufficed for that commercial republic in order to recover her power. The seven years' war caused her to experience new reverses, and it was in consequence of these reverses that the Orangeists, or the partizans of the house of Orange, succeeded in re-establishing it in its heredita-

In what year was Holland constituted a republic?—With whom did she maintain successful wars?—When did she restore the stadtholdership—How was her prosperity restored?—In what family did the stadtholdership become hereditary?—Against whom was William III successful?—By whom was he beaten?—What peace did he sign?—From whom did he take the crown?—What was abolished at his death?—What effect had the long continuance of peace on Holland?—What was occasioned by the seven years' war?

ry dignities. Factions rent the country and prepared the way for the revolution which was effected there, in 1795, by the French army, under the conduct of General Pichegru. The Batavian republic was soon treated as a conquered province by the commissioners of the Directory. In 1806 Napoleon erected the seven provinces of Holland into a kingdom, in favor of his brother Louis, and four years afterward this same kingdom, transformed into departments, was incorporated with the French empire.

After having shared for twenty years the destiny of France; Holland, constituted as the kingdom of the Low Countries, at the congress of 1815, recognized for her lawful sovereign William I. The revolution of Belgium, in 1830, left that prince only Holland, over which he reigned until his death. At present (1847) the throne of Holland is occupied by William II, whose accession took place October 7th, 1840.

BELGIANS.

Belgium, formerly the Austrian Low Countries, and since united to France, in whose successes and reverses it has for twenty years participated, forms, at the present day, the finest part of the Low Countries. The Belgians are entirely French; they have the French manners, language and habits; they have been at all times the enemies of the Hollanders; and the revolution which broke out in 1830, in the Low Countries, proves the little sympathy which existed between the two people. Leopold I, of Saxe-Coburg, was proclaimed king of the Belgians in 1831. June 4th.

What produced the revolution there in 1795?—What befel Holland in 1806?—Five years afterward?—How was she disposed of in the congress of 1815?—What effect was produced by the revolution of Belgium in 1830?—What account is given of the Belgians?

PRUSSIANS.

Prussia derives its name from a colony of Scythians called Borussi, or Prussians, who settled there. The epoch of their establishment in that country is not known, any more than the history of that primitive people. We only know that they made frequent incursions into the territories of their neighbors, and that the kings of Poland and Denmark tried many times to subdue them, but in vain.

UNDER THE TEUTONIC KNIGHTS.

Conrad, duke of Moravia and a Polish prince, not being able to defend himself against their ravages, had recourse to the *Teutonic* or *German* knights, whose order had taken its birth in *Palestine*, towards the middle of the XII century, after the conquest of Jerusalem by the army of the crusaders.

The duke of Moravia, then tutor of young *Boleslas*, king of Poland, ceded, in the name of the nation, the territory of *Culm* to these chevaliers, who engaged to conquer Prussia. They entered that country in fact and rendered themselves entirely masters of it, after a cruel war of fifty-three years.

But, in the sequel, these chevaliers were themselves attacked by the neighboring princes, who tried to take from them a part of their possessions.

Many Prussian cities revolted from the knights and placed themselves under the protection of the Poles.

From what does Prussia derive its name?—What is known of its early history?—How did the order of Teutonic Knights originate?—Who ceded to them the territory of Culm?—On what consideration and how did they perform it?—What befel them in the sequel?—What portion of their dominion revolted from the knights?

The bloody war thus occasioned was terminated by a treaty, which secured western or royal Prussia to the king of Poland, and eastern Prussia to the Teutonic Knights, on condition that they were to hold it as a fief of the crown of Poland: to which their grand-master should render homage.

Sigismund I, king of Poland, granted it to the grand-master, Albert, of the house of Brandenburg, under the title of the secular duchy.

DUCAL HOUSE.

Eastern Prussia, which was then called *Ducal*, was even declared hereditary in the family of Albert, on condition that the dukes should do homage for it to Poland.

William I, son of Albert, profited by the troubles which agitated that kingdom to obtain a cessation of the homage due to Poland, and was acknowledged an independent duke and sovereign.

ROYAL HOUSE OF

BRANDENBURG-HOHEN-ZOLLERN.

Frederic, son of William I, carried his views further, and, of his own authority, caused himself to be crowned king of Prussia in 1701. The powers of Europe recognized him under this title at the peace of Utrecht (1713). His son, Frederic William I, succeeded him in 1713.

He encouraged industry and commerce; but he gave no attention to the sciences and letters, and harshly treated his son Frederic, who passionately devoted himself to them.

How was the war thus occasioned finally settled?—What is recorded of Sigismund I?—In what family was ducal Prussia declared hereditary?—On what condition?—What is said of William I?—Of Frederic?—Of Frederic William I?

He acquired, in a war against Sweden, the duchy of Stettin, which he detached from Swedish Pomerania.

This prince was, during his whole life, a person of great eccentricity; he was very cruel, not only towards strangers, but still more towards his own family. His son Frederic, wishing to withdraw himself from his unjust severity, formed the project of flying in company with Kat, a young officer; this escape was discovered, Frederic was put in prison at Custrin, on the Oder, and Kat beheaded under the very eyes of his young protector.

Frederic II was twenty-eight years old when he mounted the throne in 1741: he was not less an excellent civil

administrator than a great warrior.

The death of the emperor Charles VI had set Europe on fire. From all sides eager hands were laid upon the legacies left to *Maria Theresa* by her father; Frederic maintained his pretensions to a part of them with as much success as determination.

The Prussian army was organized, disciplined and formed to great and masterly evolutions from the first

year of his reign.

His victories placed upper Silesia, Moravia and a part of Bohemia so promptly in his power, that England hastened to interpose a mediation, of which the peace, signed at Berlin the 28th of July, 1742, became the result.

In 1744 Prussia was enlarged anew by taking posses-

sion of East Frisia, after the death of its last prince.

Austria, humbled, yet resentful, left Germany at rest but for a few years. By her instigations a new league, composed of many powerful sovereigns of Europe, was formed against Frederic II.

What character is given of Frederic II?—How did he maintain his claims to a part of the inheritance of Maria Theresa?—What was the state of the Prussian army during his reign?—What were the results of his victories?—How was Prussia enlarged in 1744?—What league was formed against Frederic by Austria?

Then commenced the seven years' war (from 1756 to 1763), during which Frederic caused military science to

make the greatest progress.

The following year, 1757, the war was continued with great activity. Frederic had at that time combined against him, not only Austria, but also Russia, Sweden, Saxony, and a large part of the empire, the diet having declared against him the war of execution, as the disturber of the public peace by an invasion he had made into Saxony.

Berlin came near being ruined by the enemy; but it

was redeemed at the price of 1,700,000 crowns.

In 1763, Frederic made peace, at Wesel, with France, and a little while afterward, with Austria and Saxony, at Hubertsburg, a country-seat of the elector of Saxony.

In 1772, he established a company of maratime com-

merce.

The last important event of the reign of Frederic the Great was the conclusion of the Germanic Confederacy, the object of which was the maintenance of the Germanic independence against the house of Austria.

This hero died on the 17th of August, 1786, aged seventy-five years; of which he had reigned forty-seven.

Frederic II merited the title of Great: he cultivated letters with success. His correspondence with Voltaire is celebrated; he left many works, and drew up a code of laws which bears his name. He was very simple in his private life, and distributed his moments with a regularity altogether military.

Frederic William, nephew of Frederic II, succeeded

What is said of Frederic during the seven years' war?—What powers were combined against him in 1757?—What is said of Berlin at this time?—With whom did Frederic make peace in 1763?—What did he do in 1772?—What was the last important event of his reign?—When did he die?—What more is said of him?

him. He was a good prince, but weak, too much devoted to his pleasures, and not managing with prudence the treasures which his predecessors had left him, and without which Prussia could not maintain herself at the point where Frederic had left her. Under him, the discipline of the troops was relaxed, and the administration fell to decay.

Frederic sent into the United Provinces twenty thousand men who, in the space of one month, got possession of that country and re-established there the hereditary stadtholdcrate (1787).

He took against Austria and Prussia the side of the Porte, with which he had signed, on the 31st of January, a defensive alliance.

The peace of Bâle, which he signed with France on the 5th of April, 1795, was more conformed to good policy. The French evacuated the Prussian dominions which they occupied upon the right bank of the Rhine; but the king of Prussia renounced those which he possessed upon the left bank, for an equivalent which was promised him.

In 1791, Frederic William acquired the principalities of Anspache and Bareuth, by the voluntary cession of the last margrave, Christian Frederic. He died in 1797, on the 16th of November.

Frederic William III succeeded his father. He announced from the first year of his reign the design of maintaining the peace signed at Bâle. He applied himself to the task of re-establishing the finances, by introducing into the various parts of the administration a sage

What account is given of Frederic William?—What did his troops accomplish in the United Provinces?—With whom did he take part against Austria and Prussia?—What is said of the peace of Bâle?—What acquisitions did he make in 1791?
—What announcement did Frederic William III make on his accession to the throne?—To what task did he apply himself?

economy, in consequence of which he succeeded in a few years in paying the debts left by his father, and even a part of those of Poland, with which he had been charged by the last partition of that country.

Having declared war against France, he found himself constrained, in consequence of the battle of Jena, to sign at Tilsit a treaty by which he ceded a part of his dominions. But in 1813, profiting by the disasters of the campaign of Moscow, he encouraged the patriotic association known under the name of the Tugend Bund, (confederacy of virtue,) formed at Königsberg in 1808, as well as the formation of voluntary corps, and promised his people political institutions in unison with the intelligence of the age: After eight years of expectation, there appeared, on the 1st of July, 1823, a law enacted by William III concerning the organization of provincial states for the march of Brandenburg and Lower Lusatia. The present king of Prussia is Frederic William IV, who came to the throne June 7th, 1840.

SARDINIANS.

Fable refers the first colonization of Sardinia to Sardus, the son of Hercules: this is a sign of its antiquity. The Phenicians, the Trojans, and the Greeks, successively established colonies in this island. It afterward fell into the power of the Carthaginians, who maintained their dominion over it during three centuries, only by an odious tyranny and an almost continual war against the islanders, but were finally driven out from that important possession by the Romans, at the time of the first punic war.

How did he succeed?—To what was he driven by the battle of Jena?—What did he effect in 1813?—What did he promise his people?—How did he keep that promise?—Who is the present king of Prussia?—Through what political changes has Sardinia passed?

The fertility of Sardinia was of so much value to the Roman people, that many of their writers have named it the nurse of Rome, the favorite of Ceres, the mother of flecks. The islanders remained nevertheless under a severe slavery. They only changed masters after the decay of the empire. The Vandals, the Goths, and the Moors, successively got possession of Sardinia; it was taken from the latter by the Genoese, with whom the Pisans ere long obstinately disputed it. The struggle between the two rival republics, of which this island was the object, was suddenly terminated by pope Boniface VIII, who, in pursuance of a right which he had arrogated to himself, invested with it the king of Arragon, Don Pedro IV.

After having possessed himself of Sardinia (1554), that prince put in force there the institutions by which he already governed his own kingdom, that is to say, those forms of representative government which certain monarchs of Europe still repel as a dangerous innovation.

Thus, from the XIV century, there flourished in this petty State, hardly reckoned among modern nations, a constitution associating the sovereign power with the imprescriptible right of the people. Unfortunately, another principle of vitality was wanting to the government of Sardinia, even while the people, as well as the clergy and nobility, was represented in the cortes or assemblies of the States: it was parcelled out, in consequence of the system of feudal inheritance, and formed four distinct sovereignties, or jurisdictions. This division, which necessarily induced frequent conflicts, hindered the de-

What account is given of the fertility of Sardinia?—What was the civil state of the island under the Romans?—What nations successively gained dominion there?—By what means did Don Pedro IV obtain possession of it?—What course did he then pursue?—What principle of vitality was wanting to the government of Sardinia?

velopement of all national force. Besides, after the fusion of the different kingdoms of Spain, Sardinia was only an appendage of that crown. It was governed by Spanish viceroys until 1706, and was taken from Spain at that epoch by the English, who, allied to the archduke *Charles* in the war of the Spanish succession, ranked it under-the authority of that prince. Eleven years afterward it was re-conquered for Philip V by a fleet which *Alberoni* equipped for that purpose; and finally, in 1720 it was consigned to the king of Sicily and Savoy, Victor-Amædeus II, by the prince of Ottaiano, who had received it from the Spaniards in the name of the emperor Charles VI.

Sardinia was then erected into a kingdom. Afterwards, under the title of the Sardinian States, or kingdom of Sardinia, was comprised the union under the same sovereignty of the island of Sardinia, Savoy, Piedmont, Montferral, the principality of Oneglia, the marquisate of Saluces and the fiel of Langhes. The reign of Victor Amædeus III (1793–1796) had been signalized by his impotent struggle against the French republic, of which he soon made himself an ally, and by the perishing condition in which, at his death, he left the kingdom.

The hands of Charles Immanuel were not sufficiently vigorous to raise it up again from the brink of ruin. A revolution broke out under his reign, and he was reduced to the island of Sardinia as his only dominion.

The battle of Marengo decided the fate of Piedmont. Bonaparte established there a sort of provisional govern-

What is said of the connexion of this island with Spain!—When and by whom was it taken from her?—What disposal did England make of it?—What happened to it eleven years after?—To whom was it consigned in 1720?—Through what political changes has it since passed?—By what had the reign of Victor-Amædeus been signalized?—What is said of Charles Immanuel?—Of the revolution under his reign?—Of the consequences of the battle of Marengo?

ment; and when the family of Savoy had lost their onlyprotector by the death of the emperor of Russia, Paul I, a decree was passed which united to France their possessions in Italy.

As to the island of Sardinia, it remained peaceable and forgotten under the authority of Victor Emmanuel, brother and successor of Charles Emmanuel. The king of Sardinia was re-constituted after the great events of 1814. Besides his island, Victor Emmanuel had as his portion, after the congress of Vienna, the whole of Piedmont and the territory of Genoa.

A revolution which broke out in 1821, at the head of which was found the constitutional minister Santa Rosa, constrained Victor Emmanuel to abdicate in favor of his brother, Charles Felix. Charles Albert (1817) is at present on the throne, which he reached April 27th, 1831.

SAXONS.

Saxony is an ancient principality of the German empire. It is divided into the duchy or electoral circle, and into upper and lower Saxony.

About the V century the Saxons, probably driven back themselves by the irruption of the *Huns* and the *Alani*, precipitated themselves, together with the *Angles*, upon the British islands, subdued their inhabitants, and established there seven small States known under the name of the *heptarchy*.

It was about the same epoch that a portion of this cimbric horde fixed itself in the country of Lower Germany, which has preserved the name of Saxony. The Saxons

What disposal was made of Sardinia at the death of Paul I?—What is said of Victor Immanuel?—Of the revolution in 1821?—Who is at present on the Sardinian throne?—Of what empire is Saxony a part?—How is it divided?—What country did they get possession of about the V century?—When did a part of them settle in Lower Germany?

had already made themselves formidable to the Franks, when *Charlemagne*, after a bloody war of thirty years, constrained them to pay him a tribute and to embrace the faith of the gospel.

From the commencement of the organization of the German Empire, the Saxons, whose territory extended from the Elbe to the lower Rhine, were governed by dukes, to whom the king delegated temporarily the charge of ruling, in his name, and who, by slow degrees, succeeded in rendering their office hereditary. The first who, according to the genealogists, transmitted to his descendants the ducal authority, was Ludolf, who issued from the line of Witikind.

This house of Saxony raised itself to the throne of Germany in the person of Henry the Fowler.

Otho I, having invested Herman Bellingen, one of his ministers, with the title of the duke of Saxony, the duchy remained during a century and a half in the family of the latter, and afterward passed to the house of Bovaria by the marriage of the daughter of Lothaire with Henry the Guelf.

In the XII century (1176), Frederic Barbarossa divested of the Saxon sovereignty Henry the Lion, under the pretence that in the struggle against the pope Alexander III, he had poorly seconded the Lombards and the duchy of Saxony; but Pomerania and Westphalia, erected into particular duchies, were given to Albert the Bear, of the house of Ascania or Bellenstadt.

Bernhard, count of Ascania, son of that Albert, and whom the genealogists make to descend from Witikind, was the first elector of Saxony.

How did Charlemagne deal with them?—What is said of the Saxon dukedom?—Of Ludolf?—Of Henry the Fowler?—Of Herman Bellingen?—How did Saxony pass to the house of Bavaria?—What is said of Frederic Barbarossa and Henry the Lion?—To whom were Pomerania and Westphalia then given?—Who was the first elector of Saxony?

Albert III having died without posterity, in 1418, the house of Ascania divided itself between the two houses of Saxe-Anhalt and Saxe-Lauenbourg.

The emperor Sigismund, after the death of Albert III, transferred the electorate to Frederic the Warlike, land-grave of *Thuringia* and margrave of *Misnia*, the head of the branch of *Saxe-Wittemberg*.

Frederic Augustus, elector of Saxony and descendant of Frederic I, after having acceded, in 1806, to the act of organization of the Rhenish Confederacy, received from Napoleon the title of king, which was preserved to him, in 1814, by the congress of Vienna. A revolution broke out in his kingdom, and Anthony, the brother of Frederic Augustus, who died in 1827, found himself obliged, in order to calm his subjects, to appoint as coregent of the kingdom, his nephew Frederic, who had attracted to himself the confidence of the Saxons. Frederic Augustus II, now upon the threne of Saxony, reached it June 6th, 1836.

GREEKS.

From the decay of Rome, the seat of government having been transferred to Byzantium, a Greek and Christian empire was seen to spring up there which gave a new existence to Greece. The Latins and the Turks successively weakened it. Frank, Venitian and Genoese seigneurs ruled over Greece proper, the Morea and the Archipelago. The Venitians preserved their commercial possessions until the XVIII century. From that epoch

How was the house of Ascania divided at the death of Albert III?—To whom did Sigismund transfer the Electorate?—What is said of Frederic Augustus?—What were the consequences of the last revolution?—Who is at present on the throne of Saxony?—What event resuscitated Greece?—By whom was the Christian kingdom of Byzantium weakened?—Who held sway in the Grecian territories during the middle age?

ospocially, the Greek nation fell under the contemptuous yoko of the Turks: it was brutalized, and lost in a great measure its civilization.

Meanwhile the Maniotes in Morea, the Suliots in Epirus and the Spakiotes in Candia, defended their liberty, while their brethren bowed beneath the despotism of harbarians, and overwhelmed with imposts by the pachas, could only groan. Some partial insurrections were extinguished; but ere long, in 1814, some young Greeks, who had travelled in Europe, formed a patriotic association. New Tyrtæi caused the songs of independence to be heard, such as Rhigas in the XVIII century. The insurrection broke out under the prince Ypsilanti. The plains and the mountains were at once the theatre of the revolt. Men's minds were irritated still more by the decapitation of the venerable Gregory, patriarch of Constantinople. A war of extermination ravaged Greece. Missolonghi, Athens, and all the places of strength beheld the courage of the Hellenes. A constitution was drawn up, in 1822, in a national assembly held at Epidaurus. The seat of government was established at Corinth. Menuwhile the Turks continued the massacres at Scio, from whence they took 40,000 christians, whom they led into slavery. It was then that Canaris blew up the vessel of the capitan-pacha.

The christian powers remained at first unmoved; only a few individuals embraced the cause of the Greeks. The United States sympatized with Greece and sent her liberal contributions in money and munitions of war. Among

What became of them under the Turkish yoke?—What Greek tribes maintained their liberty at this time?—What took place in Greece in 1814?—Under Ypsilanti?—By what were men's minds still further irritated?—What places witnessed the courage of the new Greeks?—What was done in 1822?—What is said of the massacres of Scio?—Of Canaris?—How did christian powers at first regard Greek patriotism?—How was it viewed in this country?

them we notice Lord Byron, who ended his life in Greece; Colonel Fabrier and Lord Cochran.

On the side of the Greeks, history names Botzaris, Odysseus, Colocotroni, Mavrocordatos and Miaulis. Finally, on the 6th of July, 1827, it was resolved by England, France and Russia, together to interpose between the Turks and the Greeks, in order to put an end to the calamities of war. The united fleets of the three powers rendezvoused in the neighborhood of Greece; and, on the refusal of the Turks to recognise the armistice, they destroyed the Turko-Egyptian fleets, on the 19th of October, in the port of Navarino. The assassination of Capod'Istria, chief of the Greeks, threw that country into new dissensions, which Europe was called upon to terminate for her own honor and in her political interests. France. England and Russia, according to the last negotiations, gave the throne of Greece to prince Otho, son of the king of Bavaria. Let us hope that, under this new king, who came to the throne May 7th, 1832, the Greeks, delivered from the despotism of the Turks, may devote themselves in peace to commerce and industry, which are so much favored by the soil and climate of their beautiful country. Or, if the monarchy which has been in a measure forced upon that youthful and too much divided people be incompatible with their genius and temper, let us hope that, factious aims and sentiments being abandoned, regenerated Greece may be enabled to re-assume the republican forms and institutions under which, in ancient times, she attained to such an unprecedented height of greatness and glory.

What heroes among the new Greeks are next mentioned?—What resolution of the European powers in their favor in 1827?—What was done by the united fleets of the three powers?—What effect was produced by the assassination of Capo d'Istria?—On whom did France, England and Russia bestow the throne of Greece?—What views are expressed in conclusion respecting Greece?

Discoveries and Settlements

IN THE SOUTHERN AND WESTERN PORTIONS

OF THE UNITED STATES.

The discovery of America by Christopher Columbus. Americus Vespuccius and others has been already narrated.

In 1512 Juan Ponce de Leon, formerly governor of Porto Rico, fitted out an expedition for the purpose of discovering a wonderful fountain which was supposed by the native Indians to possess the property of restoring to youth and vigor all who drank of its waters. This fountain was reported to exist in an island of the Bahama group, and while in search of it, De Leon discovered, on the 6th of April, a country to which he gave the name of Florida, perhaps from the profusion of flowers with which it was adorned.

Not long after, a number of gentlemen residing in St. Domingo, under the direction of Lucas Vasquez de Ayllon, while on a voyage to the Bahamas, were driven northward; they landed on the coast of Carolina, which

they called Chicrao.

In 1526, Pamphilo de Narvaez having obtained from the Spanish government the appointment of governor of Florida, landed in that country, and penetrating into the interior, in the hope of discovering some rich country which he might conquer, he and his company were lost in the immense wilderness, and after many wanderings, privations and perils, they finally reached the sea shore, probably in the neighborhood of the bay of Appallachee. During these and subsequent explorations of De Narvaez and his company, the interior of Louisiana and Northern Mexico was probably first seen by the Europeans.

Under the same delusive hope of acquiring immense

What discoveries were made by De Leon?—De Ayllon?—De Narvaez?

wealth by discoveries and conquests in Florida, Ferdinand de Soto, in 1539, landed in the neighborhood of Espiritu Santo, and after wandering about with his companions for a long time, finally directed his course northward, having heard of a wealthy country in that direction governed by a female, of whom he doubtless hoped to make an easy conquest. The Indian queen and her territory he indeed found, but not the wealth with which that territory was said to abound. Directing his course still to the north, he passed through a part of Georgia, then turning westward he penetrated into the interior of Alabama, and in several excursions discovered the country then inhabited by the Chickasaw tribe of Indians, the east bank of the Mississippi, the southern part of Missouri, the valleys of the Wachitta, Red River and the region around New Orleans.

DISCOVERIES AND SETTLEMENTS
IN THE NORTHERN AND EASTERN PORTIONS
OF THE UNITED STATES.

In 1497, John and Sebastian Cabot, under the impression that new discoveries might be made by steering towards the northwest, set sail from Bristol in England; soon after they discovered land which probably was the coast of Labrador or Newfoundland. The year after, Sebastian Cabot made another voyage in the hope of discovering a north-west passage to India: during this voyage he ran down the coast of the new continent from Labrador, perhaps as far as Florida, and discovered Virginia.

In 1504 the king of France despatched a small fleet, under the orders of John Verrazani, a Florentine, who steering in a westerly direction from the Madeiras, reached the American coast *probably* in some part of the

What is said of De Soto? -Of the Cabots? -Of Verrazani?

Carolinas; from thence sailing north along the shore of Virginia, Deleware and New Jersey, he landed probably in the vicinity of New-York, and perhaps touched at Rhode Island. Having explored the coast as far as Newfoundland, he gave to the entire country, of which he supposed himself to have been the first discoverer, the name of New France?

During the years 1534, 1535 and 1536, the gulf and river of St. Lawrence were explored by James Cartier, a French mariner of note. Under his auspices and those of Roberval, his countryman, an attempt was made without success to establish a colony in the neighborhood of Quebec.

Not much more successful were the attempts made by the celebrated Coligni, admiral of France, between the years 1562 and 1565, to create a refuge for French protestants by establishing colonies in North America. In the course of these attempts the river St. Johns in Florida was discovered, and two establishments commenced on that river and near the southern boundary of Carolina. The jealousy of the Spaniards, however, led to an invasion of these sottlements, particularly the former, which soon fell into their hands; thus originated the Spanish establishment of St. Augustine.

In 1584, Sir Walter Raleigh, not discouraged by the failure of a similar enterprise the year previous under the direction of his relative, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, dispatched for the coast of America two vessels, which visited several of the islands in Pamlico and Albemarle sounds, and returning, gave such a glowing description of the country that the English queen, as a memorial that they had been discovered during her maiden-reign, gave them the name of Virginia. Stimulated by these favorable accounts of the regions over which he was lord-proprietor by virtue of his patent, Raleigh renewed his exertions to

form a settlement there. This was the origin of Roanoke, a colony which, after having encountered several reverses, was finally abandoned.

Equally abortive was the attempt made in 1598, by the Marquis de la Roche, a French nobleman, to found a colony of his countrymen at Sable Island, near the coast of Nova Scotia.

The discoveries made on the coasts of Massachusetts and Rhode Island, in 1602, by Bartholomew Gosnold, who set sail from Falmouth, in England, led to no immediate settlement.

In 1603, under the direction of De Monts, a French gentleman of note, the first permanent establishment of that nation in America took place. It was situated in the Bay of Fundy, and called Port Royal. A second expedition, in 1608, under Samuel Champlain, laid the foundation for the city of Quebec, and the settlements of Upper and Lower Canada.

In 1606, all that portion of North America lying between the thirty-fourth and the forty-fifth parallels of latitude, was divided by James I of England, who claimed the sovereignty of it, into two nearly equal portions; the one, called North Virginia, he granted to a company of "knights, gentlemen, and merchants," denominated the Plymouth Company; and the other, called South Virginia, to a body similarly composed, which was denominated the London Company. Soon after these grants the Plymouth Company attempted a settlement at the mouth of the Kennebec, within the present limits of the State of Maine, which, after much suffering on the part of the emigrants, was abandoned; while a similar enterprise, on the part of the London Company, led to the set-

What is said of the attempts of de la Roche and Gosnold?—What establishment took place under De Monts?—Under the Plymouth and London Companies?—What is said of the colonization of Virginia?

the English at planting permanent colonies in the New World.

EARLY COLONIAL HISTORY.

The history of the British Colonies in America, now included in the United States, may be divided into that of Virginia, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New-York, New Jersey, Maryland, Pennsylvania, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia.

Virginia, as a colony, was governed by the London Company under three successive charters; and after the dissolution of the Company, by the royal authority itself. Under these various forms of organization the civil and political franchises of the colonists were gradually enlarged, notwithstanding the efforts made by the mother country and her officials to prevent their increase. The most important events in the history of Virginia during this period were the early dissensions among the colonists themselves; the famine, in 1610, resulting mainly from those dissensions, and the disposition of the colonists rather to hunt for gold in the bowels of the earth than cultivate its surface; the administration of John Smith, a man of uncommon abilities, to whom the infant settlement was more than once indebted for its preservation, and yet who encountered no ordinary amount of enmity and opposition from the idle and insubordinate; the romantic interposition of Pocahontas, the daughter of Powhatan, in behalf of Smith, when he was on the point of falling a victim to the resentment and jealousy of her father, together with her subsequent marriage with John Rolfe, and her visit to England, to the climate of which she fell a victim on the eve of her return; the introduction of Negro slavery into the colonies, by the arrival of a Dutch man-of-war in Thames River, with a company of Africans, in 1620; the Indian conspiracies and massacres, and the wars between the colonists and the aborigines, to which they gave rise, in 1622 and 1644; the political and ecclesiastical feuds and animosities resulting from the changes in England under the royal government and the commonwealth; and finally, the popular revolt under Nathaniel Bacon, which may justly be regarded as a prelude to the Revolution.

Massachusetts, included in the district already described as North Virginia, seems to have been first explored by the famous Captain John Smith, whose career in Southern Virginia has been already alluded to. He examined the sea-coast and penetrated some distance into the interior of the country, and, by his representations, the attention of the Plymouth Company was again directed to the

object of planting colonies within its limits.

On the 21st of November, 1620, a company of English Puritans, who had sought a temporary refuge in Holland from the oppression endured in their own country, on account of their religious sentiments, landed, after a tedious voyage, at the spot where Plymouth now stands, and finding the place eligible for settlement, abandoned their original design of entering the mouth of the Hudson, and fixed themselves there.

Thus commenced the famous colony which, amid complicated privations, perils and reverses, but under the fostering care of Providence, advanced step by step, sometimes erring doubtless, for to err is human, but after all exhibiting an amount of intelligence, moral worth, manly fortitude and enterprise, which have told upon the history of the North American continent, and exercised an influence on the destiny of the world. They were followed, in 1624, by the Massachusetts Bay colony, which, though abandoned shortly after, was resuscitated

in 1628, in 1630 received large accessions, and at Dorchester, Roxbury, Cambridge, Watertown, and especially at Shawmut, (Boston,) laid the foundation of communities which were to perform a conspicuous part in the history of free government, on the new continent.

The leading events in the history of this colony are the sufferings endured by them during the first winter of their settlement, from sickness and destitution : their treaties with Massasoit, sachem of the Wampanoags, and Canonicus, chief of the Narragansetts; the establishment of representative democracy among them, in 1634: the excitement produced by the doctrines of Roger Williams, which gave rise to the settlement of Rhode Island; the foundation of Harvard College, in 1636; the union of the colonies of Massachusetts, Connecticut, Plymouth and New Haven for the purpose of defence against their indian or transatlantic foes; the assumption of the province of Maine under the jurisdiction of Massachusetts in 1652; the commotions produced by the introduction of Quakerism among them and their persecution of those who sought to propagate that system; the war with Philip, sachem of the Wampanoags, who effected an extensive and most dangerous league among the native tribes against the new settlers; the resistance of royal oppression, from 1677 to 1689, especially under Sir Edmund Andros; the participation of Massachusetts in the war between France and England, from 1689 to 1697, during which she attempted, in connexion with New-York, the conquest of Canada; the mischievous delusion in reference to witchcraft, (1692-3,) which has given so undesirable a celebrity to Salem and its vicinity; the murderous warfare with the savages on the frontier, excited by the French during the war between France and England in the Reign of Queen Anne; the capture of Port Royal from the former, during the same struggle, together with the siege and conquest of Louisburg, another French fortress, in 1745.

The colonial history of New Hampshire is distinguished mainly by the disputes of the colonists with Robert Mason, his heirs or assigns, who attempted to act the part of lords proprietors over that colony, in consequence of an early grant which the inhabitants were not disposed to regard. New Hampshire was withdrawn from the

jurisdiction of Massachusetts in 1741.

Connecticut was colonized in 1631, by the settlement in the valley of her beautiful river of a number of persons from the Plymouth colony under their governor, Winslow. This enterprise was opposed by the Dutch, from New-York, or, as it was then called, New Amsterdam, who claimed the valley of the Connecticut as within their limits. During 1636-7, the Connecticut colony was disturbed by the war with the Pequods and their allies, who, however, were finally subdued and nearly annihilated. During this conflict the coast from Saybrook to Fairfield became better known to the colonists, and the settlement in the vicinity of New Haven was the consequence. War with the aborigines, resistance of the oppression of royal governors, participation in the conflicts of the mother-country with other Europeon powers, these are events which do not distinguish the history of Connecticut from that of her sister colonies.

Rhode Island was colonized, as has been already remarked, in 1636, under the auspices of Roger Williams, a great and good man the apostle of political and especially of religious liberty; or, at least, their most consistent defender, who furnished in his little commonwealth the

true model of republican government, and in his magnanimous forgiveness of his opposers, whom he twice saved from the machinations of the savages, an example of christian heroism.

The colony of New-York, or New Netherlands, orginated in the attempt of the Dutch East India Company to maintain a traffic with the natives of the country which Hudson had explored around the mouth of the river which bears his name. In 1613, Argall returning from his expedition against Port Royal, found a few of the Dutch established on Manhattan Island. But the proper colonization of the country cannot be said to have begun before 1623, when a considerable company of settlers, under the command of Cornelius May, were sent out by the Dutch West India Company, to whom the East India Company had transferred their rights over the newly discovered territory. The colonists were disturbed from time to time by controversies with their eastern neighbors about territorial limits and jurisdiction until 1664, when they fell into the power of the British, and became a part of the English possessions in America. The subsequent history of this colony, down to the period of the French and Indian war, contains few events of importance. The usual conflicts between the friends of popular liberty and the myrmidons of arbitrary rule was seen here as elsewhere. In this conflict Andros, afterward famous as the petty despot of New England, is distinguished. It has been already remarked that this colony was associated with the colonies further east, in the invasion of Canada, with but little success.

In 1741 an imaginary conspiracy of the negroes to murder the whites produced a terrible commotion in New-York, and gave rise to absurdities and cruelties which fell but little short of the atrocities connected with the belief in demoniac possessions in New England.

The colony of New Jersey was included within the bounds of the Dutch settlement of New Netherlands,

until its conquest by the English, in 1664.

Maryland was colonized in 1631 by William Clayborne, a man of enterprise, sent out by the London Company. Though settled under Roman Catholic auspices, this was the first of the colonies in which religious toleration was established by law. The commotions produced by the resistance of Clayborne to the claims and authority of Lord Baltimore, chiefly distinguish the history of this colony, until the period when religious toleration was abolished, and the Church of England established as the religion of the state, under Sir Lionel Copley.

Pennsylvania was colonised by the Swedes, as early as 1643, but did not become conspicuous until 1681, when William Penn, a member of the Society of Friends, ob-

tained a grant of it from Charles II.

This colony is distinguished for its equitable treatment of the aborigines, and the consequent peace which it enjoyed, as well as for the magnanimity with which its worthy founder and proprietor acceded from time to time to the wishes of those who had settled within its bounds.

The colonization of the Carolinas, (1663-7,) and of Georgia, (1732,) and their subsequent history, differ in no important particulars from those of the other colonies.

From 1754 to 1763, the British colonies in America were involved in a war differing, in one important particular, from any other in which they had as yet participated. Heretofore those colonies, so far as they had been in collision with any European power, were drawn into

What is said of New Jersey?—Of Maryland?—Of Pennsylvania?—The Carolinas and Georgia?

it from sympathy with the mother country, rather than from any direct interest in the final issue, which, for the most part, regarded only some political question of the old world. The "French war," on the contrary, was a struggle carried on by England and France for the express purpose of determining which should be the dominant power in North America-a country the importance of which was just beginning to unfold itself to the minds of the potentates of Europe. This struggle was of the highest importance to the colonies themselves, as not only deciding who were to be their future masters, but as tending to identify and blend them together in the feeling of a common nationality. Whatever attempts had been previously made to produce a union among the colonies, had been, in a great measure, abortive, owing to sectional jealousies, or supposed incompatibility of interests. But, as the French war was an attempt on the part of France to subdue all the British colonies in America, so all were naturally united in resisting it. The extensive combination, also, which took place at this crisis amongst the native tribes against the English colonies, under French instigation, rendered a concerted plan of defence still further necessary on the part of those colonies. a word, it may be said that the competition of France and England for the sole dominion of North America, at this time, was the occasion of calling into existence sentiments and developing resources among the colonists which, at no remote period, were destined to release them from the rule of any European power whatever.

The prominent events of this war are, in 1755, the expeditions of Monekton against the French settlements in the bay of Fundy; of Braddock against Fort du Quesne,

What were the causes which led to the French War?—What were its leading events?

in which the British general and many of his troops were killed, while Washington, the destined hero of American Independence, distinguished himself; that of Shirley against Niagara, and of Sir William Johnson against Crown Point, in 1756; the loss of Oswego by the English, in 1757; the capture of Fort William Henry, by the French, under Montcalm, together with the shameful massacre of the garrison by their Indian allies; in 1758, the reduction of Louisburgh, which had reverted to the French by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle; the defeat of the British general Abercrombie, in the expedition against Ticonderoga; the capture of Forts Frontenac and du Quesne, by the colonists; and from 1759 to 1763, the abandonment of Ticonderoga and Crown Point by the French; the capture of Niagara, by Sir William Johnson, and the memorable conquest of Quebec, by General Wolfe, which virtually put an end to the war, though England and France each suffered on that occasion the loss of a most able and heroic general.

WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.

Causes of the War.

The destruction of French dominion in North America might seem to have laid the foundation for permanent peace among the British colonies. The event, however, proved the contrary. Great Britain insisted that a large part of the debt which she had incurred during the prosecution of the French and Indian War, should be defrayed by the colonists, who objected on the two-fold ground, first, that they had suffered and spent their full share in the war already; and second, that the liability to taxation implied the right of an equal representation, which they had never enjoyed. In fact, republican prin-

ciples, which had all along been rooted in the minds of the colonists, and which recent events had only strengthened, on the one hand, and, on the other the determination on the part of the mother country to hold her American colonies in a state of dependence, and make them a source of profit, were palpably inducing a crisis in the history of this country. The crisis was hastened by everal obnoxious acts of the British Parliament, restricting American commerce; such as the navigation act, declaring that no merchandise of the English plantations should be imported into England in any other than English vessels; the duty on sugar and molasses imported into the colonies; the prohibition of exporting from the colonies, or introducing from one colony into another various manufactured articles; the act ordaining that instruments of writing, such as deeds, bonds, &c. should be executed on stamped paper, for which a duty should be paid to the crown; and, above all, the odious reservation in the repeal bill of Lord North, (1770,) by which the duty on tea was continued, after a large party in Great Britain had become convinced of the inexpediency and injustice, under the existing circumstances, of taxing the colonies at all.

The disturbance produced by the attempts to introduce the offensive article into Philadelphia and Boston induced the British government to send over a large armed force, in order to overawe the colonists; and the heart-burnings, riots, and, finally, bloodshed, resulting from the collision of the citizens with this offensive soldiery, were the immediate causes of that appeal to arms which Britain regarded as a rebellion, but every American regards with reverence and joy as the War of Independence.

The leading events of this war were, in 1775, the but-

What were the leading events of the war in 1775?

tles of Lexington, Concord, and Breed's, or Bunker's Hill: the successful expedition of Ethan Allen and Benedict Arnold against Ticonderoga and Crown Point; the meeting of the Continental Congress in Philadelphia, by which war was declared and George Washington appointed to the command of the American armies; the invasion of Canada by the Continental forces, and the fall of Montgomery before Quebec. In 1776, the evacuation of Boston by the British; the frustration of their attempt on Charlestown, in South Carolina, under General Clinton; the Declaration of Independence, by the American Congress; the occupation of New-York, by the British, under Howe and Clinton; the retreat of the Continental army through New Jersey; the masterly manœuvre of crossing the Delaware, by Washington, and the consequent defeat and surrender of the enemy's forces, at Trenton, in 1777; the encounter at Princeton, in which the success of the Americans was purchased at the expense of losing the gallant General Mercer; the various, though partial successes of General Washington in the upper part of New Jersey, by which the American arms regained the credit lost by the disastrous retreat through that state the year before; the successful mission of Benjamin Franklin to France, and the enlistment of Lafayette and other noble and gallant Frenchmen in the American cause; the success of the British in the battles of the Brandywine and Germantown, and their consequent occupation of Philadelphia; the defeat of the American troops under General Schuyler, and the surrender of the army, under Burgoyne, at Stillwater. In 1778, the acknowledgment of American Independence by the court of France; the evacuation of Philadelphia by General Clinton, his partial defeat at Monmouth; the Indian massacre of Wyo-

What were the leading events of the war in 1776?-1777?-

ming, and the occupation of Savannah by General Howe: In 1779, the subjugation of Georgia, under General Provost; the recapture of Stony Point, by the Americans; the successes of General Sullivan against the Indians and Tories of the Upper Susquehanna; the brilliant action of Paul Jones on the coast of Scotland, by which two British frigates were captured. In 1780, the surrender of Charlestown to General Clinton; the treason of Benedict Arnold, and the capture and execution of Major Andre. In 1781, mutiny among the American troops, from want of pay, provisions, &c. appointment of Robert Morris to the superintendence of the treasury; defeat of Tarleton, in South Carolina, and unsuccessful pursuit of the victors by Cornwallis; able opposition to the British by General Greene, at the South; splendid success of the American arms under Washington, at Yorktown, where Cornwallis surrendered, and the war was virtually terminated.

On the 3^d of September, 1783, a treaty of peace was definitely signed between the commissioners of England and those of the United States.

The federal constitution was adopted in 1788, and George Washington was ununimously elected first President of the Union.

In 1812, owing to sundry claims and acts of Great Britain, which were deemed by the people of this country a violation of the law of nations, and an unjust encroachment upon her naval and commercial interests, Congress declared war against Great Britain. As generally happens, opinions were divided in the United States as to the expediency of such a war. It was carried on with various success, though the American army, and especially the navy, won an honorable and lasting fame by their success-

What were the leading events of the war in 1779?—1780?—1781?—What important event in 1783?—1788?—What led to the war with Great Britain in 1812?

ful encounters with the single ships and fleets of a nation which had long been deemed mistress of the sea. The war closed with the defeat of the British, under Packenham, by General Jackson, at New Orleans.

Since that time the United States, bathed on the east by the Atlantic Ocean, and on the west by the Pacific, have rapidly increased in extent as well as population. Louisians, which belonged to the French, and Florida, which was occupied by the Spaniards, form, at the present day, a part of the numerous states which compose the republic.

Washington has been succeeded in the important office of president by John Adams, Thomas Jefferson, James Madison, James Monroe, John Quincy Adams, Andrew Jackson, Martin Van Buren, William Henry Harrison, John Tyler, and James K. Polk, the present incumbent.

Under the administration of Mr. Polk, a war has broken out between the United States and Mexico, occasioned by the jealousy felt on the part of the latter power at the annexation of Texas to our Union, and the march of an American army of occupation to the left bank of the Rio Grande. It is impossible, at the present time, to foresee all the consequences to either country of which this struggle may be productive. They can scarcely fail, however, to be of the most momentous character in their bearing upon the final destiny of these United States, the entire continent of America, and the civilized world. We trust that bearing may be propitious to the cause of freedom and humanity.

What is said of the progress of the war?—The success of the American arms?—Who have filled the office of president? —What war under the administration of Mr. Polk?—What are its probable consequences?

LIST OF BATTLES FOUGHT DURING THIS WAR.

Where fought.	Who	en fo	ught.	Force en	ngaged.	Commanders.
Palo Alto,	May	S,	1846	2000	Am.	Taylor.
				6300	Mex.	
Resaca de la Palma,	May	9,	1846	1700		Taylor.
3.5		1.0	1010	9000	Mex.	Arista.
Matamoros,	May					Taylor.
Sonoma,	Jun.			_	_	
St. John's, Camargo,	July Aug.			_		_
Santa Fe,	Aug.					Kearney.
Monterey,	Sep.			6000	Am.	Taylor.
,	ocp.,	,	2010	10000		
Tampico,	Nov.	14,	1846	_	_	Conner.
Saltillo,	Nov.	16,	1846			Worth.
San Pasquel,	Dec.	6,	1846	100	Am.	Kearney.
	_				Mex.	
Brazito,	Dec.	23,	1846		Am.	Doniphan.
a al'1	T	0	1018	1	Mex.	
San Gabriel,	Jan.	8,	1847	500	Am. Mex.	Kearney.
Los Angelos,	Jan.	Q	1917		Mex.	Flores. Kearney.
Los Angelos,	Jan.	٥,	1047		_	Flores.
Mesa,	Jan.	9.	1847	_		Tiores.
La Canada,	Jan.				Am.	Price.
,		,		2000	Mex.	
El Embrido,	Jan.	29,	1847			Price.
				_		
Pueblo Taos,	Feb.	4,	1847	_		Price.
T) T71	T3 3	20 (20116		-	
Buena Vista,	Feb.	22-2	23'47		Am.	Taylor.
San Francisco,	Feb.	0.1	1917	21340	mex.	San. Anna.
San Francisco,	Feb. 2			920	Am.	Doniphan.
Dacramento,	L CD. X	٠,		38000		—
Cerralvo,	Mar.	7.		_		
Vera Cruz,				10000	Am.	Scott.
4					Mex.	Morales.
San Juan d'Ulua,	Mar. 3	30,	1847	-	-	The Navy.
				3500	Mex.	-

List of Battles Continued.

Where fought. When fought. Force engaged, Commanders.								
Where fought.	when lought.	rorce engaged.	Commanders.					
Alvarado,	Mar. 30, 1847		Hunter.					
Tlacotalpam,	Mar. 31, 1847		Hunter.					
* 1		7000 Mex.						
Puente Nacional,	Apr. 3, 1847	8000 Am.						
,		7000 Mex.						
Cerro Gordo,	Apr. 17-18'47	1						
00110 00100,	1	14000 Mex.						
Tuspan,	Apr. 19, 1847		Perry.					
Julapa,	Apr. 20, 1847							
o unapin,	11/11/100, 1011	15000 Mex.						
Perote,	Apr. 22, 1847							
Puebla,	May 27, 1817							
i deoia,	11149 21, 1011	28000 Mex.						
Tobasco,	June 22, 1847		Perry.					
i onasc.,	June 22, 1011	2800 Mex.						
Contreras,	Aug. 18, 1847		Scott.					
Control as,	Hug. 10, 1047	32000 Mex.						
Chambana	Ann 10 1012		Scott.					
Churubusco,	Aug. 18, 1847	32000 Mex.						
7 E 1: 1 1 TO	2 0 1015							
Molina del Rey,	Sep. 8, 1847		Worth.					
Clle .	C 11 10 10	2500 Mex.						
Chapultepec,	Sep. 11-12-13		Scott.					
34 ' (1)	0 11 1015	982 Mex.	l l					
Mexico City,	Sep. 14, 1847		Scott.					
	1	20000 Mex.	Sa. Anna.					

SIXTH PART.

GENERAL SUMMARY.

The first epoch of Ancient History (from the XXV to the XVII century) presents us with the establishment of the four oldest monarchies with which we are acquaint-

ed, China, Assyria, Egypt and Greece.

The second epoch (from the XVII to the XIII century) commences at the conquests of Sesostris. The victories of that prince were in fact the principal occasion of the oldest and most important revolutions in the three quarters of the then known world. In Asia they weakened the monarchy of the Assyrians; in Egypt, they changed the ancient constitution of the State, and prepared the way remotely for the corruption of manners and the decline of the empire which ensued, by the multitude of strangers whom that conqueror brought back with him. Finally they gave the Egyptians a taste for emigration. Thus certain Egyptian princes about that time conducted colonies into Greece. Inachus founded Argos; Perseus, Mycenæ; Lelex, Lacedæmon; Cecrops, Athens; and Sysiphus, Corinth. Other cities as famous in fable as in history were founded about the same epoch.

The third epoch (from the XIII to the IX century) has for its most prominent events the siege of Troy, a siege which its length, the multitude of kings who were present at it, and still more the genius by which it has been sung, have rendered one of the most famous events

n history.

The fourth epoch (from the IX to the VI century) presents the union of the four greatest lawgivers of antiquity: Lycurgus, at Lacedæmonia; Numa, at Rome; Solon, at Athens; and Confucius, in China. We see in this period the entire destruction of the Assyrian Empire, and the

foundation of three other celebrated monarchies formed from its ruins: first, that of the Medes; secondly, that of the Babylonians; thirdly, that of the Ninevites. In Europe we witness the origin of Rome, which in the sequel fixed the destiny of the eastern hemisphere; the establishment of the principal republics of Greece; the astonishing progress of legislation; the birth of philosophy and the dawn of the fine arts.

The fifth epoch comprises two centuries (from the VI to the IV.) During this period the glory of arms and of genius was carried, among the Greeks, to its greatest height. At the commencement of it, Cyrus performed the dominant part in the world; his victories changed the entire face of the East; his conquests in Asia Minor, driving back into Europe the colonists who had issued from it, and who possessed a knowledge of the arts, became the occasion of that splendor to which Greece afterward attained.

The sixth epoch comprises two centuries (from the IV to the II). At that time Rome carried to an eminent degree her virtues and talents; and the most marked good fortune, still subordinate to wisdom, directed all her footsteps. The death of Alexander occurred during this period (324), an event which produced, through the whole of Asia, one of the greatest changes ever witnessed on our globe; then commenced for Greece that process of decay from which she never recovered, while the Roman republic was aggrandized by rendering herself mistress of the empire of the Macedonian conqueror.

The seventh epoch comprehends a century (from the II to the I). During this period civil wars, excited by some of the greatest men in the world, such as the Gracchi, Sylla, Marius, Cæsar and Pompey, agitated the republic, and finally led to its ruin. The seditions excited by those two ambitious brothers, the Gracchi (neither of whom, perhaps, were destitute of patriotism) were the germ of

all the rest, the principal cause of all the domestic wars, and consequently of the revolutions by which they were terminated.

The eighth epoch comprehends two centuries and a half (from the 1 to the III century after Jesus Christ). During the course of it the Roman Empire, triumphing over the Barbarians, and elevated to the summit of glory, preserved a superiority of dominion over the nations of our hemisphere. This period may be considered as commencing at the battle of Actium, thirty-one years before Jesus Christ, because that event strengthened the power of Augustus, and furnished solid foundations to the sacred and military governments which that prince began to establish under the names of pontiff and emperor.

The ninth epoch includes three centuries (from the III to the V). During this interval the Roman Empire, attacked on all sides, and shaken by the most formidable blows, grew feeble, tottered, and ended by falling beneath the strokes of a host of nations until then almost unknown.

HISTORY OF THE MIDDLE AGE.

The first epoch of that history includes nearly a century and a half. In this interval we witness the birth of the greater part of the empires and monarchies of modern times; the ancient chaos is dispersed, new institutions are established, and Europe at length assumes a definite form. It is an epoch of creation and social organization. During its course we encounter six principal nations; the Anglo-Saxons, the Visigoths, the Ostrogoths, the Allemanni or—Germans, the Burgundians and the Franks.

The second epoch comprises nearly two centuries. It presents one of the greatest events in the annals of the world. The Arabs, a people still almost savage, but independent, who, in the immensity of their arid deserts,

had escaped the Roman arms, emerged all at once from their obscurity by the genius of a single man, and astonished the world by their courage and conquests. In a few years they subdued the half of Asia, the shores of Africa and a part of Europe, and their name, but a short time before wholly unknown, caused the emperor of the East and the monarch of Persia, then the two first potentates of the globe, to tremble upon their thrones. Had the followers of Mahomet not become divided among themselves, it is difficult to conjecture what would have. been the present condition of christendom.

The third epoch comprises a century and a half. It shows us modern continental Europe, almost at the same point which it had reached under the last Roman emperors; that is to say, nearly united under one man, and the name of the Empire renewed after three bundred and twenty-four years (476 to 800) by one of the descendants of its most formidable enemies. To this revolution soon succeeded the feudal system, which extended its administrative net-work over the whole of Western Europe, while the communes and the cities are also seen arming in their own defence.

Two men, Alfred and Charlemagne, at this epoch divide our admiration, both equally great in valor and puissance, both exerting themselves to scatter a few rays of light amidst the profound night in which the whole world was then plunged; and both above their age, striving against the prevailing barbarism and leaving behind them noble monuments of their courage and genius.

The fourth epoch includes more than a century and a half, and is worthy of great attention. After the death of Charles the Great, his vast empire, formed of so many remote countries, of so many different nations whom he had united under the same sceptre and the same laws, a mosaic held together by the compressive force of his genius,

was rent asunder, and of its fragments were formed three great empires, France, Italy and Germany.

The distinctive traits of this and the preceding epoch were the grossest ignorance, the complete triumph of superstition, the increase of the temporal and spiritual power of the popes; and the close of this period (X century) is marked by the entire destruction of the ancient civilization.

The fifth epoch comprises nearly three centuries. The religious expeditions called the crusades are the events which especially characterize this age; they present a picture at once the most interesting and varied, that of barbarism advancing unconsciously towards civilization.

The sixth epoch includes nearly two centuries. It offers to our view an event of the highest interest, that of the revival of all the fine arts, which, after having been for so long a time exiled from the West, made their appearance there again under the auspices of the Medici. The intellectual movement takes its highest flight; politics, science, literature, commerce, everything is sensible of the new impulse which has been given to the human mind, and furnishes presentiment of that great social reform which took place in the age immediately following.

MODERN HISTORY.

The revolution which occurred in Europe in the XV century, in consequence of the Turkish conquests, entirely changed the aspect of its States, and gave rise to a new political order. But this change was not sudden: it had been induced by anterior revolutions and institutions, by the invention of the compass, of printing and gunpowder. The nations of Europe profited by these discoveries to extend their information; letters, the arts, the sciences, religion, governments and manners assumed a new aspect. It is at this memorable period that we should commence modern history.

The first epoch comprehends a century and a half: it is one of the most brilliant in the annals of time. All Europe is at that time seen embellished with the labors of the fine arts, all the sciences developed, and several sublime discoveries giving to mankind information previously unknown. A new world is opened to the eyes of navigators by the discoveries of Columbus.

The second epoch includes a half century. France, at that time radiant with the glory of arts and arms, victorious by land, formidable by sea, enriched by commerce, by manufactures, by the talents of her sons, increased by a third of her possessions, gave laws to Europe; she was respected throughout the world. Louis XIV, by the superiority of his reign, is undoubtedly the most striking object which presents itself during this period.

The third epoch comprises nearly a half century. Among a multitude of famous events belonging to this epoch, we notice the happy revolution which took place in Russia; from an obscure state, it has become one of the most powerful empires of Europe; this was the work of Peter the Great, who, turning to good account the efforts of his predecessors, gave a new existence to his country, created armies, fleets, cities, arts, commerce and

an excellent system of police.

The fourth epoch lasted for half a century. This interval is marked, first, by the extinction of the powerful family of Austria, in the person of Charles VI (1740). This event, followed by the most general and bloody wars in Europe, became the principle of a total change in the relative power of the European kingdoms and in their political system; secondly, by the elevation of Prussia to the rank of one of the first continental powers, through the military and philosophic genius of the great Frederic II; thirdly, by the enfeeblement of France, which bore already in its bosom the germs which were destined to produce one of the most violent crises that

Europe had ever experienced; fourthly, by the colonial wars which furnished England the opportunity to ruin the navies of France and Spain, and to arrogate to herself a vexatious jurisdiction over neutral States. The most important of her colonies, however (the United States) escaped from her grasp; yet she boldly faced her enemies on all sides, founded in the East (India) an empire as vast as that which she had lost in the West, and remained mistress of the seas.

The fifth epoch lasted twenty-six years. It was one of the most important in all history. The independence of the political system of Europe, which Frederic II seemed to have fixed upon the firmest foundations, crumbled to pieces, and was recomposed only from its own fragments. The greater part of the European States experienced tremendous shocks. The signal for these concussions was given by France: royalty was abolished there (1792), and the head of Louis XVI fell under the axe of the revolution. This bloody tragedy moved the whole of Europe; ancient dynasties were changed: a youthful general, full of genius, boldness and ambition, bore the French name victoriously from the Tagus to the Borysthenes, and seated himself upon the throne of the Bourbons, from which he commanded continental Europe; but he descended with as much rapidity as he had risen, and was sent to die upon the rock of Saint Helena.

The sixth epoch has lasted (down to the present year, 1848,) thirty-three years. This epoch is not less remarkable than those which have preceded it; first, during its course a political system has been established in Europe, entirely founded upon the principle of legitimacy; secondly, an indissoluble bond embraces all the States of Germany; the sovereign princes and the free cities of that country have constituted themselves into a Germanic Confederation, with a diet at Frankfort on the Maine; thirdly, revolutions have been seen to break out in Spain,

Brazil, Mexico and Guatimala, and in Greece; fourthly, the war between Russia and Turkey, the usurpation of Don Miguel in Portugal, the revolution of Paris, which caused the elder branch of the house of Bourbon to descend from the throne: the revolution of Brussels, which raised all Belgium against Holland; the revolution of Poland, which in its issue seemed for a second time to efface that country, as an independent nation, from the map of Europe; the erection of the new kingdom of Greece, the fall of Don Miguel, the regency in Spain of Espartero, and his flight into England; the progress of free principles in the latter country, the continued endeavor of the three great powers of England, Russia and France to extend their influence and dominion in Asia and Africa; the opening up of China to the commerce of the world, and the rapid growth of our own country in population, territory, the arts and sciences; in a word, all the resources of national greatness: these are the events which impart a character of the highest interest to the nineteenth century, and are destined to make it one of the most important eras in the history of the world.

ALPHABETIC

TABLE OF THE NATIONS.

Pagea.	Pages.
Achæans, 155 {	French, 167
Alani, 162 }	Franks, 162
Allemanni, 157	Gauls, 158
Americans, 235 {	Genoese, 221
Angles, 162	Gepidæ, 164
Arabs, 185	Germans, 199
Armenians, 150	Goths, 163
Assyrians, 102	Greeks, 262
Athenians, 111	Haytiens, 243
Avars, 163	Hebrews, 104
Avars, 163 Babyloniaus, 104	Heruli, 163
Baleares, 230	Hollanders, 247
Belgians, 251	Hungarians, 206
Bœotians, 154	Huns 162
Bithynians, 151	Huns, 162 Iberians, or Hispani-
Bohemians, 215	ans, 159
Burgundians, 161	Irish, 196
Britons, 157	Italy, 159
Brazilians, 242	Italy, 159 Jerusalem, (History of) 229
Bulgarians, 163	Lacedæmonians, 116
Caledonians, 157	Latins, 147
Candia, (History of) . 231	Lombards, 181
Cappadocians, 151	Lucchese, 226
Carians, 152	Lydians, 152
Carthaginians, 118	Lydians, 152 Macedonians, 136
Carthaginians, 118 Cyprus, (History of) . 230	Medes, 103
Corinthians, 154	Messenians, 156
Corsicans, 230	Mexicans, 238
Cretes, 156	Milanese, 228
Danes, 204	Modenese, 227
Egyptians, 92 Empire of the East, (His-	Moguls, 164
Empire of the East, (His-	Moors 187
tory of) 150	Neapolitans, 207
English, 191	Ninevites, 103
Epirotes, 153	Normans, 164
Etolians, 153	Norwegians, 190
Etruscans 159	Numidians 161

	Pages.		Fages,
Ostrogoths,	. 163	Samnites,	-160
Popes, (History of)	165	Sardinians,	
Parmesans,		Saxons,	
Pergamotes,	152	Scotch,	
Persians,		Sicilians,	208
Peruvians,	240	Spaniards,	
Phœnicians,	. 107	Spartans,	
Phocidians,	154	Swedes,	
Phrygians,	. 152	Swiss,	216
Placentians,	225	Syracusans,	156
Poles,		Tarentines,	160
Pontines,		Thessalians,	. 153
Portuguese,	212	Turks,	233
Prussians,		Tuscans,	. 222
Ravennese,		United States,	265
Rhodians,	232	Vandals,	. 161
Romans,		Venedes,	164
		Venetians,	219
		Visigoths.	

SEVENTH PART.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

Of the Sovereigns of Europe,

Divided by dynasties and families, from the invasion of the Barbarous Nations, down to 1847.

EXERCISES.

This last labor which our system requires of the pupil is one of the most attractive and profitable; he should gradually accustom himself to designate the reigning sovereign at any given epoch. He may study, for instance, first the history of France, next that of England, and, before passing to another nation, he should place these two States in connexion, and thus in succession for other countries. After having exercised him alternately by researches and by efforts of the memory, let any date whatever be given him, and he will name, with more or less promptness and accuracy, according to his degree of progress, the kings in England, in France, in Spain, &c. at that period.

MODELS OF QUESTIONS.

1. in 1095. First Crusade.

2. in 1282. Sicilian Vespers.

3. in 1492. Discovery of America.

SOVEREIGNS OF EUROPE.

- France, Philip I.—England, William II.—Spain, house of the Visigoths.—Germany, Henry IV, &c.—Pope, Urban II, &c.
- 2. France, Philip III.-England, Edward.-Spain, House

of the Visigoths.—Germany, Rodolph of Hapsburgh.

Pope, Martin IV.

3. France, Charles VIII.-England, Henry VII.-Spain, Ferdinand V and Isabella.—Germany, Frederic III.— Portugal, John II.-Pope, Alexander VI.

Sovereigns of Europe.

ROMAN EMPERORS BEFORE JESUS CHRIST.

- 45. Cæsar, perpetual dicta- | 31. Augustus (after the battor (assassinated the year following).
 - tle of Actium).

AFTER JESUS CHRIST.

- 1. Augustus.
- 14. Tiberius.
- 37. Caligula.
- 41. Claudius.
- 54. Nero.
- 68. Galba.
- 69. Otho, Vitellius, Vespasian.
- 79. Titus.
- 81. Domitian.
- 96. Nerva.
- 98. Trajan.
- 117. Adrian.
- 138. Antonius Pius.
- 161. Marcus, Aurelius, L. Verus.
- 180. Commodus.

- 192. Pertinax, Didius Julianus. Pescennius Niger, Septimius Severus, who remained alone.
- 211. Caracalla, Geta.
- 238. Gordian II, Papienus, Balbinus.
- 238. Gordian III.
- 244. Philip.
- 249. Messius Decius, Herennius.
- 251. Hostilianus, Trebonianus Gallus.
- 253. Emilius Emilianus, the two Licimi.
- 260. Valerian and Gallienus.

268. Claudius II.

270. Domitius Aurelianus.

276. Claudius Tacitus.

276. Florianus, Aur. Probus.

282. Aurel, Carus, Carinus, Numerian.

284. Diocletian Maximian. Hercules.

305. Constantius, Clorus, Galerius.

306. Constantine the Great.

337. Constantine II, Constantius I. Constans.

361. Julian.

ROMAN EMPERORS AFTER JESUS CHRIST.

217. Opilius Macrinus and | 363. Jovian. Diadumenes, his son.

217. Heliogabalus.

222. Alexander Severus.

235. Maximin, Gordian I.

364. Valentinian 1, Valens.

375. Gratian.

375. Valentinian II.

379. Theodosius.

EMPIRE OF THE WEST.

395. Honorius.

425, Valentinian III.

455. Petronius Maximus, Avitus.

457. Majorian.

461. Libius Severus III.

467. Anthemius.

472. Olytrius.

473. Glycerius.

474. Julius Nepos.

475. Romulus Augustulus.

NOTE. See the Eastern Empire, page 150.

Invasion of the Barbarians.

FOUNDATION OF MODERN STATES.

FRANCE.

MEROVINGIAN DYNASTY.

Chiefs of the Franks.

418. Pharamond. | 448. Merovæus.

428. Clodion.

458. Childeric I.

KINGS OF FRANCE.

481. Clovis.

511. Childebert I.

558. Clotaire I.

561. Caribert.

567. Chilperic I.

584. Clotaire II.

628. Dagobert I.

638. Clovis II.

656. Clotaire III.

670. Childeric II.

673. Thierry I.

691. Clovis III.

695. Childebert II.

711. Dagobert II.

715. Clotaire IV.

716. Chilperic II.

720. Thierry II.

Interregnum of five years under the government of Charles Martel.

742. Childeric III.

CARLOVINGIAN DYNASTY.

752. Pepin, the Short. 763. Charlemagne.

814. Louis the Debonair.

840. Charles II, the Bald.

877. Louis II, the Stammerer

879. Louis III and Carloman.

882. Carloman, alone.

844. Charles the Gross.

FAMILY OF ROBERT, THE STRONG.

888. Eudes.

FAMILY OF CHARLEMAGNE.

898. Charles III, the Simple.

THE FAMILY OF BURGUNDY.

923. Raoul.

FAMILY OF CHARLEMAGNE.

936. Louis IV, Outre-mer. 954. Lothaire. 986. Louis V.

CAPETIAN DYNASTY.

CAPETS.

987.	Hugh	Capet.
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996. Robert.

1031. Henry I.

1060. Philip I.

1108. Louis VI. 1137. Louis VII.

1180. Philip II, Augustus.

1223. Louis VIII.

1 1226. Louis IX.

1270. Philip III, the Bold.

1285. Philip IV, the Fair.

1314. Louis X.

1316. John I.1316. Philip V.

1322. Charles IV.

VALOIS.

1323. Philip VI.

1350. John II, the Good.

1364. Charles V, the Wise.

1380. Charles VI.

1422. Charles VII.

1461. Louis XI.

1483. Charles VIII.

VALOIS-ORLEANS.

1498. Louis XII, the Father of the People.

VALOIS-ANGOULEME.

1515. Francis I.

1517. Henry II.

1559. Francis II.

1560. Charles IX.

1574. Henry III.

BOURBONS.

1589. Henry IV.

1610. Louis XIII.

1643. Louis XIV.

1715. Louis XV.

1774. Louis XVI.

1793. Louis XVII.

THE REPUBLIC.

1792 to 1804.

DYNASTY OF NAPOLEON.

1804. Napoleon, Emperor.

BOURBONS.

1814. Louis XVIII. | 1824. Charles X.

ORLEANS DYNASTY.

1830. Louis Philip I, king of the French.

England.

ANGLO-SAXON HOUSE.

827. Egbert.

837. Ethelwolf.

857. Ethelwald.

860. Ethelbert.

866. Ethelred I.

871. Alfred the Great.

901. Edward the Elder.

925. Athelstan.

940. Edmund I.

946. Edred.

955. Edwy.

957. Edgar.

975. Edward the Martyr.

978. Ethelred II.

1016. Edmund II.

DANISH HOUSE.

1014. Sueno. 1017. Canute I. 1036. Harald I.

1040. Hardi-Canute.

SAXON KINGS.

1042. Edward, the Confes- | 1065. Harald II. sor.

NORMAN HOUSE.

1066. William, the Con- | 1100. Henry I. queror.

1135. Stephen of Blois.

1087. William II.

HOUSE OF THE PLANTAGENETS.

1154. Henry II.

1216. Henry III.

1189. Richard I.

1272. Edward I.

1199. John. Lackland.

1307. Edward II.

1327. Edward III.

1377. Richard II.

LANCASTERS. 1399. Henry IV.

1413. Henry V.

1422. Henry VI. YORKS.

1461. Edward IV.

1483. Edward V. 1483. Richard III.

HOUSE OF TUDORS.

1485. Henry VII.

1509. Henry VIII.

1547. Edward VI.

1554. Mary.

1558. Elizabeth.

HOUSE OF STUARTS.

1603. James I.

1625. Charles I.

1649. Interregnum.

1653. Cromwell, protector.

1658. Richard Cromwell.

1660. Charles II.

1685. James II.

1688. Revolution.

1689. William III, of

Orange-Nassau.

1702. Ann Stuart.

HOUSE OF BRUNSWICK-HANOVER.

1714. George I.

1727. George II.

1760. George III.

1820. George IV

1830. William IV. 1837. Victoria I.

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Low Countries.

STADTHOLDERS.

1570. William I.

1584. Maurice.

1625. Henry, Frederic.

1647. William II.

1672. William III.

1702. The Stadtholderate abolished.

1702. Heinsius, grand pensioner.

1747. William IV, Stadtholder.

1751. William V.

1795. Revolution.

KINGS .- FAMILY OF NAPOLEON.

1806. Louis Bonaparte, king of Holland.

ORANGE-N'ASSAU.

1815. William (IV) I.

HOLLAND.

1830. William I, king of Holland.

BELGIUM.

1831. Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, king of the Belgians.

Spain.

VISIGOTHS.

The dynasty of the Visigoths reigned from 415 to 714.

MOORISH DOMINION,

Particular kings in Castile, Leon and Arragon.

KINGDOMS OF SPAIN RE-UNITED.

1474. Ferdinand V, the Catholic, and Isabella. 1504. Jane the Simple, and Philip the Fair.

1506. Ferdinand, the Catholic.

AUSTRIA.

1516. Charles I (Fifth). 1556. Philip II. 1665. Charles II. 1698. Philip III.

1621. Philip IV.

BOURBONS.

1700. Philip V.

1724. Louis I.

1724. Philip V, again.

1746. Ferdinand VI.

1759. Charles III.

1788. Charles IV.

1808. Ferdinand VII.

DYNASTY OF NAPOLEON.

1808. Joseph.

BOURBONS.

1814. Ferdinand VII, re-established. 1823, Isabella II.

Prussia.

DUKES.

1525. Albert.

1568. Albert Frederic.

1618. John Sigismund.

1619. George William.

1640. William Frederic. 1688. Frederic I.

KINGS .- HOHENZOLLERN.

1701. Frederic I.

1713. Frederic William I.

1786. Frederic William II. 1797. Frederic William III.

1740. Frederic II, the Great. 1840. Frederic William IV.

Naples and Sicily.

NORMAN HOUSE.

1057. Robert Guiscard II. | 1085. Roger I.

KINGS.

1130. Roger II.

1154. Roger, the Bad. 1166. William II.

1189. Tancred.

1194. William III.

HOHENSTAUFFEN.

1189. Henry VI, Emperor | 1250. Conrad IV. of Germany.

1258. Manfred.

1197. Frederic II.

ANGEVINE.

1266. Charles of Anjou.

1285. Charles II.

1309, Robert the Wise,

1343. Jane I.

1382. Charles de Duras.

1386. Ladislas.

1414. Jane II.

SICILY (ARRAGON).

1282. Peter II, king of Ar- | 1355. Frederic III.

ragon.

1285, James.

1296. Frederic II.

1336. Peter.

1342. Louis.

1377. Marv.

1402. Martin I. 1409. Martin II.

1410. Ferdinand I.

1416. Alphonso I.

ARRAGON.

1442. Alphonso I, king of Arragon.

SICILY.

1479. Ferdinand, the Catholic.

NAPLES.

1458. Ferdinand I. 1494. Alphonso II.

1495. Ferdinand II. 1496. Frederic III.

TWO SICILIES (ARRAGON). 1506. Ferdinand, the Catholic.

SPANISH AUSTRIA.

1516. Charles Fifth.

1554. Philip II.

1598. Philip III.

1621. Philip IV.

1665. Charles II.

BOURBONS.

1700. Philip V.

SAVOY.

1714. Victor Amedæus.

AUSTRIA.

1714. Charles VI.

BOURBONS OF SPANISH ANJOU.

1734. Don Carlos.

| 1759. Ferdinand IV.

NAPOLEON DYNASTY.

1806. Joseph Bonaparte.

1808. Joachim Murat.

RESTORATION OF THE BOURBONS.

1815. Ferdinand IV. 1825. Francis I.

1830. Ferdinand II.

Portugal.

BURGUNDY. -

1139. Alphonso I.

1279. Denys.

1185. Sancho-I.

1325. Alphonso IV.

1211. Alphonso II.

1357. Peter I.

1223. Sancho II.

1367. Ferdinand I.

1248. Alphonso III.

HOUSE OF AVIS.

1383. John.

1495. Emmanuel.

1433. Edward.

1521. John III.

1438. Alphonso V.

1557. Sebastian.

1481. John II.

1578. Henry the Cardinal.

SPANISH DOMINION.

1580. Philip II.

1621. Philip IV.

1598. Philip III.

BRAGANZA.

1640. John IV.

1784. Mary, alone.

1656. Alphonso VI.

1816. John VI.

1683. Peter II.

1826. Donna Maria II.

1706. John V.

1750. Joseph I.

1828. Don Miguel, usurp-

1777. Peter II and Mary.

1834. Donna Maria.

Russia.

RURICK.

962. Rurick.

(This house lasted until the Czars.)

CZARS.

1533. Iwan IV.

1584. Fedor L.

1598. Godnof.

1605, Fedor II.

1605. Dimitri, the False.

1606. Schuskoi. 1610. Wladislas.

ROMANOF.

1613. Michael.

1645. Alexis.

1676. Fedor III.

1682. Juan V, Peter I. 1696. Peter, alone.

EMPERORS.

1721. Peter the Great.

1725. Catherine I.

1727. Peter II.

1740. Iwan VI. 1741. Elizabeth.

HOLSTEIN-GOTTORPS.

1762. Peter III and Cath- ! 1801. Alexander I. erine II.

1796. Paul L.

Western Empire.

(CONSTANTINOPLE, THE CAPITAL.)

FIRST DIVISION OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE.

364 Valens, brother of Valentinian, Emperor of the West, at Rome.

THEODOSIAN RACE.

379. Theodosius the Great.

SECOND DIVISION OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE.

397. Arcadius, brother of Honorius, Emperor of the West.

408. Theodosius II.

450. Pulcheria and Marcian.

457. Leo I.

473. Leo II.

474. Leno.

491. Anastasius I.

JUSTINIAN RACE.

518. Justin I.

527. Justinian I.

565. Justin II.

578. Tiberius II, adopted. 582. Maurice, adopted. 602. Phocas.

HERACLIAN RACE.

610. Heraclins.

641. Constantine III, Heraclius and Constantius 11.

668. Constantine IV.

685. Justinian II.

695. Leontius.

698. Absim, Tiberius.

705. Justinian II, re-established.

711. Philipicus.

713. Anastasius II.

716. Theodosius II.

ISAURIAN RACE.

717. Leo III.

741. Constantine V.

775. Leo 1V.

780. Constantine VI and Irene.

797. Irene, alone.

802. Nicephorus I.

811. Stauratius.

811. Michael Curopalates.

813. Leo V.

PHRYGIAN RACE.

820. Michael the stammer- | 829. Theophilus I. er.

S42. Michael III.

MACEDONIAN RACE.

867. Basil I.

886. Leo VI.

911. Alexis and Constantine VII.

915. Romanus and his sons, Christus, Stephen, and Constantine VIII.

945. Constantine, alone.

959. Romanus II.

963-969. Nicephorus, Phocas, Zimiceos.

976. Basil II and Constantine IX.

Greek Empire.

1023. Romanus III, Zoe, | Theodora.

1034. Michael IV.

1041. Michael V.

1042. Constantine X.

1056. Michael VI.

1057. Michael Comnenus.

1059. Constantine Ducas.

1067. Romanus IV.

1071. Michael Ducas.

1078. Nicephorus III.

1081. Alexis Comnenus, Ann Comnenus.

1118. John Comnenus, the Fair.

1143. Manuel Comnenus.

1180. Alexis II.

1183. Andronicus Comnenus.

1185. Isaac Angelus.

1185. Alexis Angelus.

1203. Isaac, again.

1204. Mursulus.

Latin Empire.

1204. Baldwin, of Flanders. |

1206. Henry, of Flanders.

1216. Peter, of Courtenay.

1219. Robert, of Courtenay. 1228. John de Brienne, Baldwin of Courtenay.

New Greek Empire.

1261. Michael Palæologus.

1282. Andronicus II.

1328. Andronicus III.

1347. John Cantacuzene.

1353. John Palæologus.

1391. Manuel Palæologus.

1425. John Palæologus II.

1448. Constantine Palæologus.

Turkey.

OSMANLIES.

 1451. Mahomet II.
 1618. Osman II.

 1481. Bajazet II.
 1622. Mustapha, re-established.

 1512. Selim I.
 lished.

 1520. Soliman.
 1623. Amurath IV.

 1640. Ibrahim.
 1640. Ibrahim.

1574. Amurath III. 1595. Mahomet III.

1603. Achmet I. 1695. Mustapha II. 1691. Achmet II.

1703. Achmet III. 1774. Abdeel Hamid. 1730. Mahomet V. 1789. Selim III.

1754. Osman III. 1808. Mustapha IV. 1808. Mahmoud II.

1757. Mustapha III. 1808. Mahmoud II. 1817. Mustapha I. 1839. Abdhul Medjid.

Germany.

CARLOVINGIAN.

771. Charlemagne. S79. Louis II. 814. Louis, the Debonair. S82. Charles, the Gross.

843. Louis I, the Germanic. 887. Arnulph.

876. Carloman. S99. Louis III, the Infant.

FRANCONIA. 911. Conrad I.

SAXONY.

919. Henry I, the Fowler. 983. Otho III. 936. Otho the Great. 1002. Henry II.

973. Otho II.

SALIC FRANCONIA.

1024. Conrad II. | 1056. Henry IV. 1039. Henry III. | 1106. Henry V.

SHARIA SUPPLEMBOURG.

1125. Lothaire II.

SUABIA HOHENSTAUFFEN.

1138. Conrad III.

1152. Frederic I.

1190. Henry VI.

1197. Philip.

1208. Otho IV.

1212. Frederic II.

1250. Conrad IV.

1254. William of Holland.

1260. Interregnum.

HAPSBURG.

1273. Rodolph of Hapsburg.

1292. Adolphus of Nassau. 1298. Albert of Hapsburg.

1308. Henry VIII of Luxemburg.

1314. Louis of Bavaria.

1347. Charles IV, of Luxemburg.

1378. Wenceslas, of Luxemburg.

1400. Robert, count palatine.

1411. Sigismund, of Luxemburg.

HAPSBURG, AUSTRIAN.

1438. Albert II.

1440. Frederic III.

1493. Maximilian I.

1519. Charles Fifth.

1558, Ferdinand I.

1564. Maximilian II.

1576. Rodolph II.

1612. Matthias.

1619. Ferdinand II.

1637. Ferdinand III.

1658. Leopold I.

1705. Joseph I.

1711. Charles VI.

1742. Charles VIII, of Bavaria.

AUSTRO-LORRAINE.

1745. Francis I and Maria | 1790. Leopold II Theresa.

1765. Joseph II.

1792. Francis II.

1835. Ferdinand II.

sweden.

DENMARK.

1389. Margaret Waldemar. | 1439. Christopher III. 1412. Eric.

OLDENBURG.

1448. Christiern I. 1481. John.

1513. Christian II.

WASA OR VASA.

1523. Gustavus Vasa.

1560. Eric XIV.

1568. John III.

1592. Sigismund.

1604. Charles IX.

1611. Gustavus II, (Adolphus).

1632. Christine.

DEUX-PONTS.

1654. Charles X.

1660. Charles XI.

1697. Charles XII.

1718. Ulrica Eleonora.

1720. Frederic, associated. 1741. Frederic, alone.

HOLSTEIN EUTIN.

1751. Adolphus Frederic.

1771. Gustavus III.

1792. Gustavus IV.

1809. Charles XIII.

1818. Charles XIV (I. Bernadotto).

Denmark.

THE UNION.

1397. Margaret. 1412. Eric.

1438. Christoper III.

HOLSTEIN GLUCKSTADT.

1448. Christian I.

1481. John I.

1513. Christian II, last king of the Union.

1523. Frederic I.

1534. Christian III.

1559. Frederic II.

1588. Christian IV.

1648. Frederic III.

1670. Christian V.

1699. Frederic IV.

1730. Christian VI.

1746. Frederic V.

1766. Christian VII.

1808. Frederic VI.

1840, Christian VIII.

Sardinian States.

DUKES.

1391. Amædæus VIII, anti- | 1498. Philip the Fair. pope under the name of Felix V.

1451. Louis.

1465. Amædœus IX.

1472. Philibert.

1482. Charles L.

1489. Charles II.

1496. Philip I.

1504. Charles III.

1553. Emmanuel Philibert.

1580. Charles Emmanuel the Great.

1630. Victor Amædæus II.

1637. Frederic Hyacinth.

1638. Charles Emmanuel II.

KINGS.

1730. Charles Emmanuel III.

1773. Victor Amædæus III.

1796. Charles Emmanuel IV.

1675. Victor Amædæus II. | 1802. Victor Emmanuel V. 1821, Charles Felix.

1830. Charles de Carignan.

Poland.

PIAST.

842. Piast.

JAGELLONS.

1384. Ladislas V, or Jagel- 1501. Alexander. lon:

1434. Ladislas VI.

1445. Casimir IV:

1492, John d' Albert.

1506. Sigismund I.

1548. Sigismund II.

1572. Interregnum.

ELECTIVE ROYALTY.

1573. Henry of Valois.

1575. Stephen of Bathori.

1586. Interregnum.

1587. Sigismund III.

1632. Ladislas VII.

1648. John Casimir.

1668. Interregnum. 1669. Michael Coribut.

1674. John Sobieski.

1696. Interregnum.

1697. Frederic Augustus, of Saxony.

1704. Stanislas Leczinski.

Frederic Augustus, 1709. re-established.

1753. Frederic Augustus, of Saxony.

1764. Stanislas Poniatowski. 1795. Division of Poland.

PRINCIPAL POPES.

142 to 150. Pius I.* 422 to 432. Celestine I. 440 to 461. Leo, the Grand.

590 to 604. Gregory the-Great.

741 to 752. Zachary.

768 to 772. Stephen III. 795 to 816. Leo III.

996 to 999. Gregory V. 999 to 1003. Sylvester II. 1073 to 1085. Gregory VII.

891 to 896. Formosus.

1088 to 1099, Urban II.

1261 to 1264. Urban IV.

1294 to 1303. Boniface VIII.

POPES AT AVIGNON.

1305 to 1314. Clement V. | 1341 to 1352. Clement VI.

POPES AT ROME.

1378 to 1389. Urban VI. 1492 to 1503, Alexander VI.

1503 to 1521. Leo X.

1523 to 1534. Clement VII.

1566 to 1572. Pius V.

1572 to 1585. Gregory XIII.

1585 to 1590. Sixtus V.

1769 to 1774. Clement XIV. 1775 to 1799. Pius VI. 1800 to 1823. Pius VII. 1823 to 1829. Leo XII. 1829 to 1830. Pius VIII.

1831 to 1836. Gregory XVI.

1700 to 1721. Clement XI.

Present Pope, Pius IX.

^{*} In commencing the succession of popes at so early a date, there is no design of determining or even entering into theological controversy. ope in this connection, is meant simply the chief bishop of Rome.

PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

1789. George Washington.

1797. John Adams.

1801. Thomas Jefferson.

1809. James Madison.

1817. James Monroe.

1825. John Quincy Adams.

1829. Andrew Jackson.

1837. Martin Van Buren.

1841. William H. Harrison.

1841. John Tyler.

1845. James K. Polk.

THE END.











